

Abstract

Observations from long-term ozonesonde measurements show robust variations and trends in the evolution of ozone in the middle and upper troposphere over Réunion Island (21.1°S, 55.5°E) in June-August. Here we examine possible causes of the observed ozone variation at Réunion Island using hindcast simulations by the stratosphere-troposphere Global Modeling Initiative chemical transport model (GMI-CTM) for 1992-2014, driven by assimilated Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA) meteorological fields. Réunion Island is at the edge of the subtropical jet, a region of strong stratospheric-tropospheric exchange (STE). Our analysis implies that the large interannual variation (IAV) of upper tropospheric ozone over Réunion is driven by the large IAV of the stratospheric influence. The IAV of the large-scale, quasi-horizontal wind patterns also contributes to the IAV of ozone in the upper troposphere. Comparison to a simulation with constant emissions indicates that increasing emissions do not lead to the maximum trend in the middle and upper troposphere over Réunion during austral winter implied by the sonde data. The effects of increasing emission over southern Africa are limited to the lower troposphere near the surface in August - September.

1. Introduction

Tropospheric ozone plays an important role in the oxidative capacity of the troposphere and in atmospheric radiative forcing [e.g., *Lacis et al.*, 1990; *Fiore et al.*, 2002; *Forster et al.*, 2007; *Sitch et al.*, 2007; *Stevenson et al.*, 2013]. It acts as a direct greenhouse gas in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere (UTLS) and has contributed significantly to climate change. It also impacts the air quality near the

surface, with harmful effects on human health and crop yields [e.g., *Bell et al.*, 2005; *Silva et al.*, 2013]. Ozone is produced in the troposphere by photochemical oxidation of CO and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in the presence of nitrogen oxides (NO_x) [e.g., *Logan et al.*, 1981]. These ozone precursors are emitted both from anthropogenic sources, including fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning, and from natural sources such as lightning. Moreover, in regions of subsidence, tropospheric ozone may be significantly affected by ozone input from the stratosphere. Long-range transport, most significant in the middle and upper troposphere where the ozone lifetime is several weeks [*Fusco and Logan*, 2003], also contributes to the tropospheric ozone distribution [*Sudo and Akimoto*, 2007].

A recent study by Thompson et al. [2014] identified a significant increase in tropospheric ozone at Réunion (21°S, 55°E) in June-July-August (JJA) from 1992 to 2011 based on ozonesonde measurements. The observed increase is up to 50%/decade in the upper troposphere. This result extended the study by Clain et al. [2009], who found a strong positive ozone trend in the middle and upper troposphere in JJA based on Réunion sondes for 1992 to 2008. The sonde data also show large interannual variability (IAV), which complicates the estimation and diagnosis of trends. In this study, we use the stratosphere-troposphere Global Modeling Initiative chemical transport model (GMI-CTM) model to interpret the observed IAV and trends of tropospheric ozone over Réunion from 1992 to the present. In so doing, we investigate the impact of stratospheric input and surface emissions during the past 20 years.

Earlier studies have used tropospheric CTMs to examine the response of tropospheric ozone to changes in stratospheric input and in surface emissions; these

models used a simple treatment of stratospheric influence, in which they used either the SYNOZ (synthetic ozone) approach developed by McLinden et al. [2000] of specifying the flux [e.g., the GEOS-Chem model in *Fusco and Logan*, 2003; *Hess and Zbinden*, 2013], or they specified ozone in the lower stratosphere [*Karlsdottir et al.*, 2000; the GISS model in *Fusco and Logan*, 2003]. Pozzoli et al. [2011] simulated tropospheric composition for 1980-2005 using an aerosol-chemistry climate model driven by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) 40-year reanalysis (ERA-40) data and operational analyses. The two simulations with constant and varying anthropogenic emissions show similar IAV in surface ozone, suggesting that changes in meteorology and natural emissions contribute greatly to the ozone IAV, which may mask contrasting regional trends driven by anthropogenic emissions in surface ozone in any given period. Lin et al. [2014] argued that shifts in atmospheric circulation patterns contribute to the observed tropospheric ozone trends at Mauna Loa, the western US, and the northern mid-latitudes in recent decades based on a suite of chemistry–climate model simulations. Hess et al. [2015] analyzed the effects of stratospheric input to tropospheric ozone variations over the northern hemisphere mid-latitudes with four ensemble simulations of the free running Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model (WACCM) for 1953 to 2005. Their model used a standard stratospheric chemical mechanism, but with simple CH₄-NO_x chemistry in the troposphere with constant surface chemical emissions. The agreement of the simulated and observed tropospheric ozone IAV in Hess et al. (2015) suggests that natural variability plays a big role controlling the IAV of tropospheric ozone over the northern hemisphere (NH). Most of these studies focused on the northern hemispheric extra-tropics. Far fewer studies have focused on the

93 long-term behavior of ozone in southern hemisphere (SH) owing to a lack of suitable
94 observations.

95 In our study, taking advantage of the multi-year record from Réunion sondes and
96 hindcast simulations from the GMI-CTM model [*Duncan et al.*, 2007; *Strahan et al.*,
97 2007], we investigate the causes of observed interannual and decadal variations of
98 tropospheric ozone over Réunion. Our analysis is based on a series of hindcast
99 simulations for 1992-2014 with the GMI-CTM driven by assimilated Modern-Era
100 Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA) meteorological fields
101 [*Rienecker et al.*, 2011]; the GMI-CTM includes a comprehensive stratospheric and
102 tropospheric chemical mechanism. The simulations include a stratospheric ozone tracer
103 to examine the stratospheric contribution. We also use a control simulation with constant
104 emissions to explore the influence from surface emissions.

105 Réunion Island (20.8°S, 55.5°E) is in the western part of the south Indian Ocean,
106 about 1000 km east of Madagascar. In the upper troposphere, the position of Réunion is
107 near the boundary between tropical air with low ozone and the subtropical jet region with
108 high ozone (Figure 1 in Thompson et al. 2014). The dominant meteorological features in
109 the troposphere over Réunion are subject to competition between tropical and subtropical
110 influences on the general circulation. The meteorology is also affected by the
111 perturbations from the South Indian Ocean anticyclone and wave propagation in the
112 westerlies [*Waugh and Polvani*, 2000; *Randriambelo et al.*, 2003]. Observations and
113 meteorological data show that tropospheric ozone variations over this region are mainly
114 influenced by stratospheric intrusions through various dynamical mechanisms [*Baray et*
115 *al.*, 1998; *Postel and Hitchman*, 1999; *Baray et al.*, 2003; *De Bellevue et al.*, 2007; *Clain*

116 *et al.*, 2009]. Škerlak *et al.* [2014] extracted a global climatology of stratosphere–
117 troposphere exchange (STE) using the ERA-Interim data set from 1979 to 2011. Their
118 results show a large latitudinal gradient in the ozone flux from stratosphere to
119 troposphere to the south of Réunion in JJA as well as other seasons. Tropospheric ozone
120 at Réunion shows a strong seasonal cycle with an austral winter-spring maximum and
121 summer minimum [Baldy *et al.*, 1996; Taupin *et al.*, 1999; Randriambelo *et al.*, 2000].
122 The summer minimum is due to a combination of photochemical loss and inflow of
123 tropical marine air with the development of deep convection [Taupin *et al.*, 1999; Clain
124 *et al.*, 2009]. The winter-spring maximum has been attributed by several previous studies
125 to a combined influence of surface emission and stratospheric influence [e.g., Taupin *et*
126 *al.*, 1999; Randriambelo *et al.*, 2000; Thompson *et al.*, 1996; 2003].

127 Réunion is located downwind of emissions from southern Africa and Madagascar.
128 Several studies based on trajectory statistics suggested that a portion of African emissions
129 might be transported to the Indian Ocean [Garstang *et al.*, 1996; Piketh *et al.*, 2002; Sudo
130 *and Akimoto*, 2007; Thompson *et al.*, 2014]. Southern Africa, one of the major biomass-
131 burning regions in the southern hemisphere, also has an abundance of industrial and other
132 anthropogenic sources. Lelieveld *et al.* [2004] found that anthropogenic NO_x emissions
133 doubled from 1977 to 2001 (0.8 to 1.6 Tg/year) over Africa based on a historical
134 emission inventory. Sauvage *et al.* [2007] showed that emissions over the Eastern regions
135 (India, South-East Asia, Australia) have a broad influence throughout the Pacific and
136 Indian Oceans, with the maximum contribution for ozone changes over Réunion region in
137 JJA. They argued that the Eastern source emissions were transported to the upper level
138 anticyclone associated with the Indian monsoon system [Hoskins *and Rodwell*, 1995;

Rodwell and Hoskins, 2001], then trapped in the Tropical Easterly Jet, which peaks in JJA [*Hastenrath and Wu*, 1982], and transported cross-equator to North Africa, the Atlantic and Indian ocean. The changes in anthropogenic emissions from the Eastern region may also contribute to the observed positive trends at Réunion. We will examine the effects of changes of emissions using a sensitivity simulation with constant emissions, including emissions from biomass burning, fossil fuel and biofuel burning, in section 3.3.

Section 2 provides an overview of the GMI-CTM simulations and the ozonesonde measurements. Section 3.1 evaluates the vertical and spatial distribution of tropospheric ozone in the model using ozonesonde data and GMAO assimilated data. Section 3.2 presents a diagnostic study of factors controlling the observed ozone IAV in the upper troposphere at Réunion using GMI-CTM model simulations. Section 3.3 focuses on the trends in observed and model simulated tropospheric ozone. Conclusions and the discussion of the dynamical effects on tropospheric ozone IAV are described in section 4.

2. Measurements and Model

2.1. GMI CTM hindcast simulations

We used the GMI CTM [*Duncan et al.*, 2007; *Strahan et al.*, 2007] driven by MERRA reanalysis meteorology [*Rienecker et al.*, 2011, <http://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/research/merra/>]. MERRA was produced with the NASA Goddard Earth Observing System (GEOS) version 5.2.0 data assimilation system with the native horizontal resolution of $0.67^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ and 72 vertical levels. The vertical resolution of MERRA fields is $\sim 1\text{km}$ in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere. We regrid to $2^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ for input to the base GMI-CTM simulations. MERRA uses a modified version of the Relaxed Arakawa-Schubert convective scheme (RAS) described by Moorthi and

162 Suarez [1992]. The model reads in the planetary boundary layer (PBL) from MERRA and
163 follows the full mixing scheme where emissions and concentrations of individual species
164 are evenly distributed in the PBL. The model includes a complete treatment of
165 stratospheric and tropospheric chemistry coupled with aerosol mechanism derived from
166 the GOCART model [*Chin et al.*, 2002]. Biogenic emissions of isoprene and
167 monoterpenes follow the latest version of the MEGAN algorithm [*Guenther et al.*, 2006].
168 Biomass burning emissions are from the Global Fire Emission Database, GFED3 [van
169 der Werf et al., 2010]. Emission before 1997 are retrieved from GFED3 emission
170 climatology averaged for 2001 to 2009 with regional-scale IAV applied, which was
171 derived from satellite information on fire activity (ATSR) and/or aerosol optical depths
172 from the Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS) by Duncan et al. [2003].
173 Anthropogenic emissions are based on the EDGAR 3.2 Inventory [*Olivier et al.*, 2005],
174 overwritten with the regional inventories for North America, Europe, and Asia. More
175 details are given in Strode et al. (2015). Emission data were only available through year
176 2011 when our hindcast simulations were conducted. Consequently, we repeat the
177 emissions of year 2011 for years of 2012-2014. The lightning NO_x is calculated online
178 following the scheme described by Allen et al. (2010). The global total of NO_x from
179 lightning is set the same of 5.00 Tg N/yr every year in the hindcast. Methane mixing
180 ratios are specified in the two lowest model levels, using time dependent zonal means
181 from NOAA/GMD. Other long-lived source gases important in the stratosphere, such as
182 N_2O , CFCs and halocarbons are forced monthly at the two lowest model levels based on
183 the A2 scenario as described in Strahan et al. [2007]. Stratospheric aerosol
184 distributions/trends are from IGAC/SPARC and have IAV [*Stolarski et al.*, 2006].

Our standard simulation (labeled as Hindcast-VE) used in this study for 1992-2014 includes monthly and inter-annually varying emissions of fossil fuel, biomass burning and biofuel. We carry out a control run with constant emissions fixed at year 2000 levels, which is labeled as Hindcast-CE. We also conduct a high-resolution simulation (labeled as Hindcast-VE-HR) at $1.25^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ horizontal resolution to explore the effect of model's horizontal resolution on ozone simulation.

The model includes a stratospheric ozone tracer (StratO₃). The StratO₃ is defined relative to a dynamically varying tropopause tracer (e90) [Prather *et al.*, 2011], which has been implemented in the GMI model. The e90 tracer is an artificial tracer emitted at the surface uniformly (100 ppb) with a 90-day e-folding lifetime. In our simulation, the e90 tropopause value is 90 ppb. The StratO₃ tracer is set equal to ozone in the stratosphere and is removed in the troposphere with the loss frequency (chemistry and deposition) archived from daily output of Hindcast-VE simulation in this study. There is no production of StratO₃ in the troposphere. Using the StratO₃ tracer allows quantification of ozone of stratospheric origin in the troposphere at a given location and time. This approach has also been adopted in the high resolution GFDL AM3 model [Lin *et al.*, 2012].

2.2. Réunion ozone sonde measurements

Vertical ozone profiles were measured since September 1992 at Réunion Island from radiosondes using three manufacturers (Science Pump Corporation: SPC, EN-SCI Corporation: ENSCI-Z and ENSCI-Droplet Measurement Technologies: ENSCI-DMT) [Baldy *et al.*, 1996; Baray *et al.*, 2006; Thompson *et al.*, 2014]. Although these changes are not recorded in the SHADOZ metadata (<http://croc.gsfc.nasa.gov/shadoz/>), the

lacking of instrument uniformity could have minor impacts on calculated trends. Overall sonde data quality assurance during SHADOZ's period (1998-2014) can be inferred from comparisons between sonde total ozone at Réunion and TOMS (to 2005) and OMI (after 2005) overpass, as well as Système d'Analyse par Observation Zénitale (SAOZ) [Thompson et al., 2003; 2007; 2012], which do not show evidence of systematic instrumental change. The ozone measurements are on a bi-weekly/monthly basis. A standard meteorological radiosonde is attached to the ozonesondes to simultaneously transmit the profiles of atmospheric temperature, pressure, and humidity, along with the ozone data: Vaisala RS80 (prior to Sept 2007) then Modem M2K2 and M10 (since April 2013). The Modem sondes measure in addition the position, the wind speed and direction (Doppler GPS). Thompson et al. [2012] showed that the column ozone over Réunion for 2005-2009 as measured by the sondes was within 2-3% of OMI satellite measurements and the measurements of SAOZ instrument, co-located at Réunion Island.

To compare GMI-CTM model output with the Réunion sonde profiles, we extract the model grid box containing Réunion Island and sample the model profiles on the date of each observation. The Réunion ozonesondes provide high-vertical-resolution profiles of ozone (~100m) through the depth of the troposphere. We convert the sonde profiles from high-resolution to the low-resolution vertical grid used in model. In our algorithm, we integrate the high-resolution sonde profiles at their pressure levels to get the accumulated partial column ozone profiles in Dobson Units (DU). We then interpolate the integrated profiles into the MERRA reduced vertical grid with 47 fixed pressure levels and convert them back to mixing ratio in ppbv following the method as described in Ziemke et al. [2001].

2.3. GMAO assimilated ozone data

We also used assimilated tropospheric ozone to evaluate overall model performance. This assimilated dataset is produced by ingesting OMI v8.5 total column ozone and MLS v3.3 ozone profiles into a version of the Goddard Earth Observing System, Version 5 (GEOS-5) data assimilation system [Rienecker *et al.*, 2011]. No ozonesonde data are used in the assimilation. Wargan *et al.* [2015] provides details of the GEOS-5.7.2 assimilation system, which for this application is run with a horizontal resolution of 2° latitude by 2.5° longitude and with 72 vertical layers between the surface and 0.01 hPa. For the troposphere, the assimilation applies only a dry deposition mechanism at the surface without any chemical production or loss. This algorithm works since the ozone lifetime is much longer than the six-hour analysis timesteps. Ziemke *et al.* [2014] evaluated the tropospheric ozone profiles derived from OMI and MLS measurements using three strategies to quantify the tropospheric ozone column (this GEOS-5 assimilation, trajectory mapping and direct profile retrieval using the residual method) with ozonesonde observations and GMI model simulations. They found that the tropospheric ozone product from the GEOS-5 assimilation is the most realistic one. Wargan *et al.* [2015] also demonstrate that the upper tropospheric ozone (500 hPa to the tropopause) from GEOS-5 assimilation is in good agreement with independent observations from ozonesondes. Therefore, we treat the ozone from the GEOS-5 assimilation as a reference value and use it to evaluate our GMI model simulation. We use partial column ozone integrated from 500 hPa to the tropopause from the GEOS-5 assimilation, because there is no direct observational constraint in the analysis in the lower troposphere (the OMI kernels have no weight in the lowest layers) and the

assimilation system does not account for chemical production by fast chemical processes, such as NO_x emissions [Wargan *et al.*, 2015]. We use the same tropopause as defined by the lowest of the 3.5 PVU/380K control surface to calculate the tropospheric ozone column.

3. Results

3.1. Ozone profile and model evaluation

The temporal evolution of observed ozone vertical profiles from Réunion ozonesondes in July and August from 1992 to 2014 is shown in Fig. 1. The ozone concentration in the middle and upper troposphere stayed low in the early 1990s then increased continuously around year 2000 in both July and August. The profiles in 1990s have steep ozone gradients in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere, and a relatively uniform and low ozone layer in the middle and lower troposphere. The profiles in 2000s show greater IAV and occasionally have large increases of ozone in the middle and upper troposphere (e.g., July 2006, 2011; August 2006, 2008, 2010, 2013). Evidently, the occurrence of these ozone maxima in the 2000s are the main reason for the positive ozone trends in July and August calculated by Thompson *et al.* (2014) over Réunion.

A recent study by Lin *et al.* [2015] concluded that the weekly ozone sonde measurements at Trinidad Head and Boulder do not faithfully capture the actual variability of mean mid-tropospheric ozone due to the sparse sample frequency. The issue of the sampling frequency of sondes (weekly or sparser at many sites) has also been raised by many previous studies, often in the context of tropospheric trends [e.g., Cooper *et al.*, 2010; Logan *et al.*, 2012], but also in terms of climatology [Logan, 1999], and in

terms of different types of variability, including interannual [e.g., *Logan et al.*, 2012; *Saunois et al.*, 2012]. We therefore used model simulations to check the adequacy of the sampling frequency over Réunion. Figure 2 compares simulated monthly mean ozone mixing ratio at 226 hPa, 313 hPa, and 510 hPa averaged from the GMI-CTM Hindcast-VE-HR run ($1^\circ \times 1.25^\circ$, with varying emissions) co-sampled with the available sonde observations (red lines), and the monthly mean of the model daily output (green lines) from 1992 to 2014. The phases of interannual variations are often similar between the two monthly means, with some obvious discrepancies particularly in the upper troposphere. The variations in the co-sampled means tend to have a larger magnitude. This is not unexpected, as Réunion is located in a both dynamically and chemically active region with a large ozone gradient, and the sampling is infrequent. The agreement of monthly means between these two sampling methods is better at 510 hPa than at upper levels. We also compare the monthly mean from daily output and the means determined with different sampling frequencies (e.g., monthly, bi-weekly, weekly). The results suggest that increasing sampling frequency to 4 per month would be enough to reproduce the IAV of the mean from daily output. Although the current sparse sampling cannot fully reproduce the IAV in the monthly means of daily output in the upper troposphere, we can evaluate how well the model captures the variability that is revealed by the sonde data by co-sampling the model on the dates of the soundings, and then use the model to examine mechanisms influencing the IAV.

Unlike the IAV, the derived trends are very sensitive to the sampling frequency, as well as other factors, such as years used in the trend calculation (see below). In July, the mean of daily output shows statistically significant positive trends

both at 226 hPa and 313 hPa. These trends become insignificant when sampled at the ozonesonde measurement time. In August, the significant positive trends in ‘sampled’ monthly mean become insignificant in the monthly mean ozone of daily output at 226 hPa and 313 hPa. Given the limitations of the sampling as well as other factors affecting calculated trends, we have not focused on the trends at Reunion, except for an analysis of the influence of trends in emissions.

Figure 3 compares the modeled and observed tropospheric ozone at Réunion averaged over 1992-2002 and 2003-2014 from the upper to the lower troposphere. The observed monthly mean ozone is generally higher (~10-20 ppb) in the upper troposphere during the most recent period compared to the previous period. The difference between these two periods is smaller in both model simulations. At 226 hPa, the Hindcast-VE simulation (red) agrees very well with the observed phase of the annual cycles during both periods, but is too high by 10-15 ppb for 1992-2002. From 313 hPa to 694 hPa, the Hindcast-VE simulations overestimate the observations from June to August over both periods. The overestimates are largest (~12 ppb) in the upper troposphere and decrease to ~5 ppb in the middle and lower troposphere. Ozone from the high-resolution simulation (blue) is systematically lower than that from the low-resolution simulation by an average of 15 ppb in the upper troposphere and less than 5 ppb in the lower troposphere, resulting in a better agreement with observations in June to August from 313 hPa to 694 hPa. At 226 hPa, the high-resolution simulation reduces the overestimate as seen in the low-resolution simulation for 1992-2002, but underestimates the observations for 2003-2014.

Figure 4 shows the spatial pattern of southern hemispheric ozone partial columns in the upper troposphere (integrated from 500 hPa to the tropopause) averaged over 2005

to 2012, when GMAO assimilated data are available, for the four seasons from the GMAO assimilated dataset based on OMI/MLS (left column) and the GMI hindcast-VE simulation (middle column) and their absolute difference (right column). Wargan et al. (2015) argue that the UT ozone column (from 500 hPa to the tropopause) within 30°S-30°N latitude bands has a low bias of 2.5 ± 3.8 DU compared to sonde measurement. We therefore adjusted the GMAO assimilated ozone by adding 2.5 DU to compare to the GMI hindcast simulation. Both show the wave one ozone maximum, a predominantly Southern Hemisphere phenomena, with ozone maximum localized in the southern Atlantic - southern Africa - western Indian Ocean region [Logan and Kirchhoff, 1986; Thompson et al., 1996; 2003; Sauvage et al., 2006; 2007]. Over these ozone maximum regions, although the GMI hindcast simulations are too high compared to the assimilated ozone, most of the model overestimations are within the bias range as suggested by Wargan et al. [2015]. In general, the GMI hindcast simulation reproduces the seasonality and spatial distribution of the upper tropospheric column ozone from the assimilated product.

3.2. IAV

Figure 5 shows the temporal variation of observed (black) and simulated ozone (red) and the simulated StratO₃/O₃ ratio (blue) at 313 hPa in July and August from 1992 to 2014. The monthly mean simulations are calculated from daily output sampled on the date of sonde measurements. In July, sonde and model agree well on the IAV of O₃ at 313 hPa ($r = 0.78$, $P < 0.001$) and are similar to the phase of the IAV of the StratO₃/O₃ ratio. For example, both sonde and model show an ozone minimum in 1997, 2004, and 2011 when the stratospheric ozone contribution inferred from the StratO₃/O₃ ratio reaches

a minimum. In July 1998, 2006 and 2012, both sonde and model show an ozone maximum, concurrent with the maximum in the $\text{StratO}_3/\text{O}_3$ ratio. In August, a similar but somewhat weaker coupling is observed between ozone mixing ratio and $\text{StratO}_3/\text{O}_3$ ratio at 313 hPa. The IAV of both the simulated ozone and $\text{StratO}_3/\text{O}_3$ ratio is relatively constant through the two decades, while the IAV in observed ozone is relatively small during the first decade compared to that in the second decade (Figure 5). Therefore, the IAV of simulated ozone shows a better agreement with the IAV of sonde observations in the 2000s. An independent initial analysis of total column ozone based on satellite and a MERRA-forced GMI-CTM simulation also suggests better agreements after year 2000 (L. D. Oman, personal communication, 2015), when many more higher resolution meteorological observations are included in the MERRA assimilation [Rienecker *et al.*, 2011]. Nevertheless, the model captures many of the observed peaks and troughs in the sonde measurements. The good agreement between tropospheric ozone IAV with that of $\text{StratO}_3/\text{O}_3$ ratio during austral winter indicates that changes in the stratospheric ozone contribution play an important role in the observed IAV in winter over Réunion at 313 hPa, particularly in July when StratO_3 explains about 44% of the model variance.

Figure 6 shows a similar plot in December, when both STE and surface emissions over southern Africa reach their seasonal minimum. The model agrees well with the observed ozone from sondes in the upper troposphere ($r = 0.64$, $P < 0.005$). It matches the magnitudes and phase changes of observed IAV, except for 2005, 2012-2013. The stratospheric ozone contribution explains about ~27% of the variance of model ozone, which indicates even in austral summer the IAV of stratospheric input contributes to IAV of upper tropospheric ozone over Réunion.

369 To diagnose and examine the impact of stratospheric input and other dynamical
370 mechanisms on the tropospheric ozone at the interannual time scale, we selected July
371 1997 and 2006 as two extreme examples. The top two panels of Figure 7 show the spatial
372 maps of simulated ozone mixing ratio at 313 hPa in July 1997 and 2006. Both years show
373 a similar ozone spatial pattern. Ozone reaches a minimum over Indonesia, which is
374 caused by strong convection over this region [*e.g.*, Logan *et al.*, 2008]. The very high
375 ozone is widespread across the southern Atlantic, southern Africa, southern Indian Ocean
376 region and western Pacific, centered at 30°S where the subtropical jet is located. The
377 black cross denotes the location of Réunion, with steep gradients in ozone. It is clearly
378 seen from Figure 7 that in July 1997, Réunion is located at the edge of the ozone
379 maximum zone, while in July 2006, Réunion is in its center. The difference in ozone over
380 Réunion at 313 hPa is up to 20 ppb (~30%) between these two years. The bottom two
381 panels show the spatial maps of the corresponding StratO₃/O₃ ratio, which represent the
382 influence of stratospheric air on tropospheric ozone. The stratospheric influence shows a
383 minimum over the tropics and maximum contribution over the subtropics, which is
384 closely related to the Brewer Dobson circulation [*Brewer*, 1949; *Dobson*, 1956; *Holton et*
385 *al.*, 1995]. Réunion is located right on the boundary of the tropical convection regions
386 and the subtropical jet system with a sharp gradient in the stratospheric input. In July
387 1997, the equatorward boundary of regions with strong stratospheric influence moves
388 southward and Réunion falls out of this region. In July 2006 Réunion falls in the region
389 with strong stratospheric influence, resulting in the ozone maximum. Evidently the large
390 interannual differences in the stratospheric contribution of ozone cause the strong IAV of
391 tropospheric ozone over Réunion. Ozone is most abundant over the regions where

stratospheric influences are highest.

Figure 8 shows the profiles of observed (black) and the simulated ozone from GMI-CTM Hindcast-VE (red) and GMI-CTM Hindcast-VE-HR (blue) in July 1997 and 2006 at Réunion. In July 1997, ozone concentrations are low (~30 ppb) through the troposphere and are representative of major influence from tropical marine air. In July 2006, the ozone concentration slowly increases with altitude, with an ozone peak up to 90 ppb in the upper troposphere both in measurements and model simulations, reflecting the contributions from stratospheric high ozone air. Ozone profiles from both simulations reproduce the shape of observed ozone profile in July 1997, but the models are too high in the middle and upper troposphere by ~10 ppb. In July 2006, the ozone profile from high-resolution simulation agrees very well with the observed ozone profile below 300 hPa, while results from the low-resolution run are too high.

We also examined the influence of the prevailing horizontal transport on the IAV of tropospheric ozone near Réunion. Figure 9 shows the monthly mean ozone mixing ratio superimposed on the spatial wind pattern at 313 hPa in July 1997 and 2006. In July 1997, northwesterly winds prevail over Réunion Island, and bring in tropical low ozone air. In July 2006, the southerly winds encroach from the south and converge near Réunion Island, which bring in mid-latitude high ozone air, with the strongest StratO₃ contribution (Figure 7). The combined contributions from horizontal and vertical dynamics result in the ozone maximum in 2006 at Réunion. The IAV of large-scale wind patterns reinforce the changes in the stratospheric contribution and contribute to IAV of upper tropospheric ozone.

3.3. Trends

Figure 10 shows the trend profiles as a function of month for the observations and model simulation (Hindcast-VE) at Réunion from 1992 to 2014 in units of ppb/decade. The trends are calculated from a linear regression trend model that includes factors of the seasonal cycle and trends as discussed by Ziemke et al. [1997]. The black lines indicate statistical significance at 90% confidence interval. Similar profiles of trends calculated from the ozonesondes but for 1992-2011 (as in Thompson et al. 2014) are shown in Fig. S1. The trend maximum in JJA in the middle and upper troposphere calculated for 1992-2014 is about 19 ppb/decade at 164 hPa (Fig. 10a), which is ~ 5 ppb/decade lower than the trend maximum for 1992-2011, showing the sensitivity of the trend to the selected period. The model simulations reproduce the key features and general morphology of observed trends, but underestimate the maximum trend in the sonde data in July-August in the middle and upper troposphere by ~ 6 ppb/decade (Hindcast-VE, Fig. 10b). The model co-sampled with the available sonde observations also shows statistically significant positive trends between 200 and 400 hPa in November-December, in agreement with the observed secondary maximum (Fig. 10a).

3.4. Sensitivity to time-dependent emissions

Figure 11 shows the temporal variation of total NO emissions and NO emissions from fossil fuel and biomass burning in our model in July - September from 1992 to 2011 over southern Africa and Eastern regions. In southern Africa, the NO emissions are mainly driven by the IAV of biomass burning. Both fossil fuel and biomass burning emissions show a slightly positive trend in July-September. In the Eastern region, the trend of NO emission is mainly driven by the fossil fuel combustions, and biomass burning contributes to the IAV. For example, the 1997 peak in NO emissions over the

Eastern region was driven by the record-setting forest fires in Indonesia. The fossil fuel emissions from the Eastern region show a substantial increase over 20 years, which could contribute to the observed positive trends at Réunion through the pathway described earlier. We examined the effects of varied emission on tropospheric ozone over Réunion using a sensitivity run with constant emissions. Figure 12 shows the calculated ozone trend from 1992 to 2011, the period that the Hindcast-VE has the yearly-varied emissions input, between runs with varied emission and constant emission (Hindcast-VE and Hindcast-CE). It shows that differences of simulated ozone trends between these two runs are quite small ($<1\text{ppb/decade}$). The maximum increases due to emission changes occur in the upper troposphere from July to September and near the surface from August and September. The increase in the upper troposphere is probably caused by the cross-equator transport of increased emissions from the Eastern region in the upper troposphere. The near-surface ozone increase in August-September possibly results from increased emissions over southern Africa and Madagascar. Senten et al., [2008] confirmed the impacts from burning events in Africa and Madagascar on the tropospheric chemical composition over Reunion based on an event study in October 2004, using the measurements from ground-based high spectral resolution Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) solar absorption spectroscopy campaign and the FLEXPART simulation. The results in Figure 12 imply that the increase due to emission only accounts for $\sim 15\%$ of the ozone change and does not explain the observed trend maximum in the middle and upper troposphere over Réunion during austral winter.

4. Summary and Discussion

In this study we used the GMI-CTM model to interpret the trend and interannual

variations of tropospheric ozone recorded by ozonesondes from 1991 to 2014 over Réunion. Comparisons of the observations and simulations, along with an analysis of the MERRA meteorology, the influence of surface emissions, and of stratospheric contributions using the StratO₃ tracer, provide an understanding of factors controlling the temporal variations of tropospheric ozone at this location. Our analysis also reveals limitations of low-resolution model simulations, as well as successes. It also implies that the bimonthly/monthly sonde measurements at Reunion are too sparse to give reliable trend estimates.

The model reproduces 61% of the observed interannual variance of tropospheric ozone over Réunion in July, and less in August (27%) at 313 hPa. During the years with relative low ozone, Réunion is mainly influenced by tropical marine air and the stratospheric influence is at a minimum. During the years with relative high ozone, the stratospheric contribution reaches a maximum. The agreement between StratO₃, the model ozone and observed ozone provides convincing evidence that the stratospheric influence plays an important role in controlling the IAV of tropospheric ozone over Réunion. Our examination of the horizontal wind pattern suggested that the IAV of large-scale wind patterns could be an important factor in the changes from the stratospheric contribution and also contribute to IAV of the ozone at 313 hPa. The simulated IAV of tropospheric ozone between runs with interannually varying surface emissions and constant emissions are almost identical (not shown), indicating that the IAV in emissions does not contribute to the tropospheric ozone IAV over Réunion.

The GMI model captures the seasonality of observed trends, showing positive trends during the July-September as well as during the December-January, notably in the

middle and upper troposphere. However, the model simulation underestimates the observed magnitude of the maximum trend in July-September. For the Hindcast-VE simulation, Réunion is located at the northernmost edge of the selected $2^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ grid cell, which centers at 22°S , 55°E . The mean value of ozone in this grid cell would be larger than its northernmost edge value (21°S at Réunion) if the location of the large latitudinal gradient in ozone moves to the South. The overestimate decreases when Réunion falls in the high ozone region as the location with large latitudinal ozone gradient moves northward. Therefore the changes in simulation errors due to coarse horizontal resolution could buffer the actual changes. The magnitude of observed ozone trends from the Réunion sondes are unlikely to be fully reproduced in the coarse-resolution 3-D model ($2^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$). Increasing the spatial resolution of the simulation leads to somewhat better agreement with the observed ozone mean mixing ratio, but the improvements varies year by year. To fully capture the magnitude of observed trends, a simulation with even higher resolution for both the horizontal and vertical grid, as well as an accurate representation of the vertical transport processes and of the location of the sub-tropical jet may be needed. Furthermore, our model analysis suggests that the frequency of sondes at Réunion would have to be increased to give robust trends.

Many studies [e.g., *Pickering et al.*, 1990; *Lelieveld and Dentener*, 2000] have shown that lightning NO_x is one of the important factors affecting tropospheric ozone in the tropics, especially at the middle and upper troposphere. In our hindcast simulation, lightning NO_x are calculated online following the scheme described by Allen et al. (2010), showing spatial variations, but with a constant global total value every year. A recent study by Murray et al. [2013] compared the variance in the tropospheric ozone

column for 1998-2006 between a simulation using IAV in lightning from Lightning Imaging Sensor (LIS) and a base simulation with IAV only from GEOS convection. Their results show that the difference is exceedingly small at Réunion. We conclude that the lightning NO_x scheme in our hindcast simulation is not the reason for not fully capturing the observed ozone variability over Réunion.

The emission influence on the trends or IAV of tropospheric O₃ reflects remote effects from emission sources through long-range transport. Increased emissions over the Eastern region contribute partially to the ozone increase in the upper troposphere in austral winter. Increasing emissions over southern Africa appears to affect only the lower troposphere and do not explain the observed trend maximum in the middle and upper troposphere during its austral winter season.

A recent model study by Li et al. [2010] based on simulations from a coupled chemistry-climate model (GEOSCCM) has identified a narrowing of the Hadley Cell's rising branch with enhanced descent extending into the tropics over the 21st century (2001-2099). Their simulations suggested that the expansion of the sinking branches of the Hadley Cell occurred on both the equatorward and poleward edges. The expansion of poleward edges is commonly referred as a widening of the tropical belt in various observational and modeling studies [e.g., *Hu and Fu*, 2007; *Seidel and Randel*, 2007]. The expansion of equatorward edges is associated with an equatorward movement and leads to the narrowing of the Hadley Cell's rising branch, which is likely to produce an increased stratospheric input over Réunion Island and result in increased tropospheric ozone near this region. Weekly ozonesonde measurements at this location will be promising for understanding the long-term variations in dynamical exchanges between

the tropics and mid-latitudes and between the troposphere and the stratosphere due to its special location. It will also be valuable for evaluations of climate predictions from a chemistry-climate model.

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Figures:

Figure 1: Temporal evolution of ozone profiles from Réunion ozonesonde in July and August from 1992 to 2014. High-resolution Réunion sonde profiles are integrated to MERRA reduced vertical grid (47 fixed pressure levels).

Figure 2: comparison of simulated monthly mean ozone mixing ratio averaged from the GMI-CTM Hindcast-VE-HR run (1x1.25, with varying emissions) co-sampled with the available sonde observations (red), and the mean determined from daily ozone fields archived from the model (green) for July and August from 1992 to 2014 at 226 hPa, 313 hPa, and 510 hPa. Numbers in each panel represent the calculated linear trends at the 90% confidence level with unit ppb/decade. They follow the same color scheme as the lines.

Figure 3: Comparison of GMI-CTM Hindcast-VE (2x2.5, red lines), Hindcast-VE-HR (1x1.25, blue lines) and observed (black lines) monthly mean averaged over 1992 to 2002 (left panels) and 2003 to 2014 (right panels) at 226 hPa, 313 hPa, 510 hPa, and 694 hPa. Vertical bars indicate ± 2 standard error of the monthly mean values. The model results are sampled on the date of sonde measurements. High-resolution Réunion sonde profiles are integrated to MERRA reduced vertical grid (47 fixed pressure levels).

Figure 4: Seasonal maps of tropospheric partial column ozone (in Dobson Unites, integrated from 500 hPa to the tropopause) for December-February (DJF), March-May (MAM), June-August (JJA), and September-November (SON) season averaged from 2005 to 2012 for GMAO assimilated ozone (left) and GMI-CTM Hindcast-VE ozone

(middle) and their absolute difference (right). The GMAO assimilated ozone has been adjusted by adding 2.5 DU based on Wargan et al. [2015].

Figure 5: Time series of observed (black) and GMI-CTM Hindcast-VE simulated (red) ozone mixing ratios, and the $\text{StratO}_3/\text{O}_3$ ratio (blue) at 313 hPa in July (left panels) and August (right panels) from 1992 to 2014. The model results are sampled on the date of sonde measurements.

Figure 6: Time series of observed (black) and GMI-CTM Hindcast-VE simulated (red) ozone mixing ratios, and the $\text{StratO}_3/\text{O}_3$ ratio (blue) at 313 hPa in December from 1992 to 2014. The model results are sampled on the date of sonde measurements.

Figure 7: The monthly mean GMI-CTM Hindcast-VE simulated ozone mixing ratio at 313 hPa in July a) 1997 and b) 2006. And the simulated monthly mean $\text{StratO}_3/\text{O}_3$ ratio in July c) 1997 and d) 2006. The black star denote the Réunion Island.

Figure 8: The profile of the monthly mean ozone in July (left) 1997 and (right) 2006 from Réunion sonde observations (black), GMI-CTM Hindcast-VE (red) and GMI-CTM Hindcast-VE-HR simulations (blue). The model results are sampled on the date of sonde measurements.

Figure 9: Monthly mean ozone mixing ratio (ppb) overlaid with horizontal winds derived from MERRA metfields in July 1997 (top) and 2006 (bottom) at 313 hPa for the GMI Hindcast-VE simulation. The black star denotes the Réunion.

Figure 10: Trend (ppb/decade) computed from a linear regression model for ozone profile data from a) Réunion sonde, b) Hindcast-VE from 1992 to 2014. The model results are sampled on the date of sonde measurements. Black line contour denotes statistical significance at 90% CI. “# of mons” at the bottom of Fig. 10a shows the number of data points in the trend calculation for that month in our regression model.

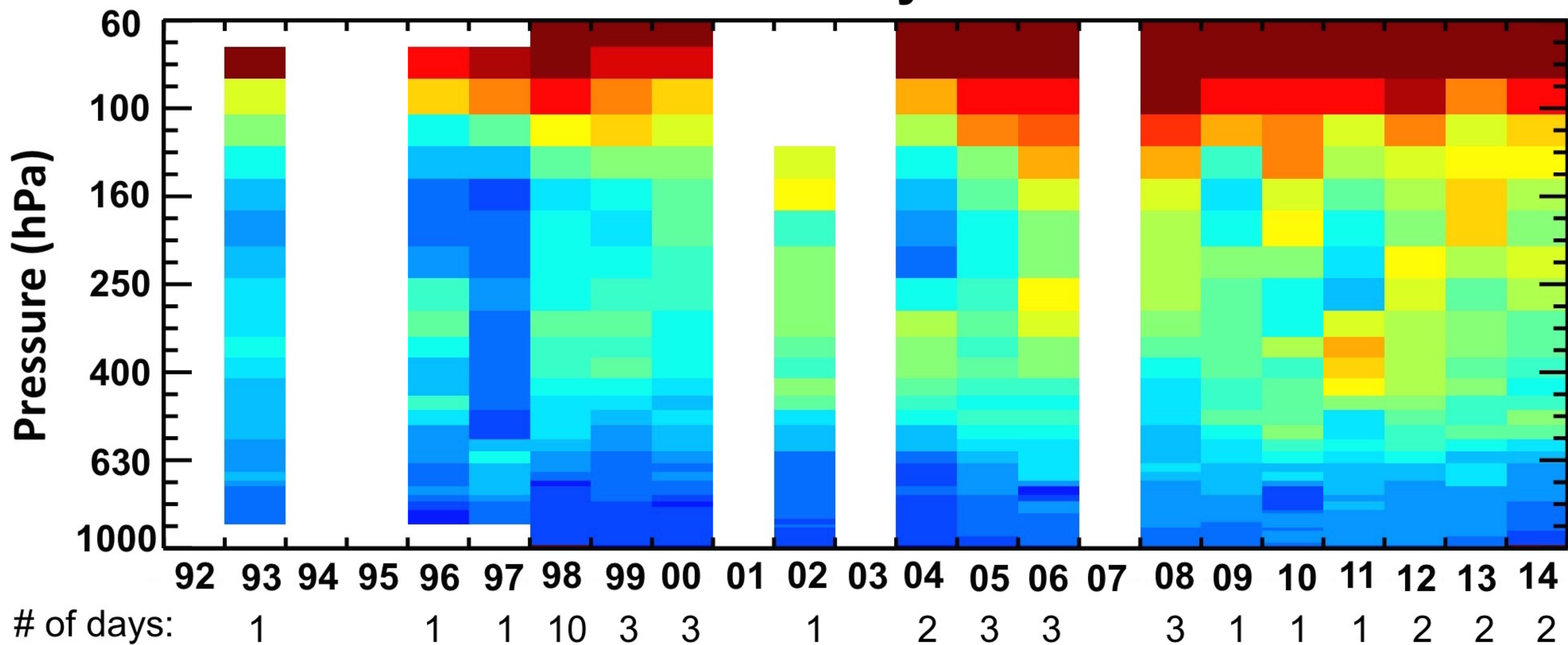
Figure 11: Temporal variation of emission of total NO (solid line), NO from fossil fuel (dash line) and NO from biomass burning (dash dot line) in our model in July-September from 1992 to 2011 over southern Africa and East regions. Numbers in each panel represent the calculated linear trends at the 90% confidence level with unit kt/mon/year.

Figure 12: Trend (ppb/decade) computed from a linear regression model for monthly mean ozone profiles, calculated from daily profiles sampled at sonde time, from a) Hindcast-CE, b) Hindcast-VE from 1992-2011. Right panel is the difference of the trends between these two runs in unit ppb/decade.

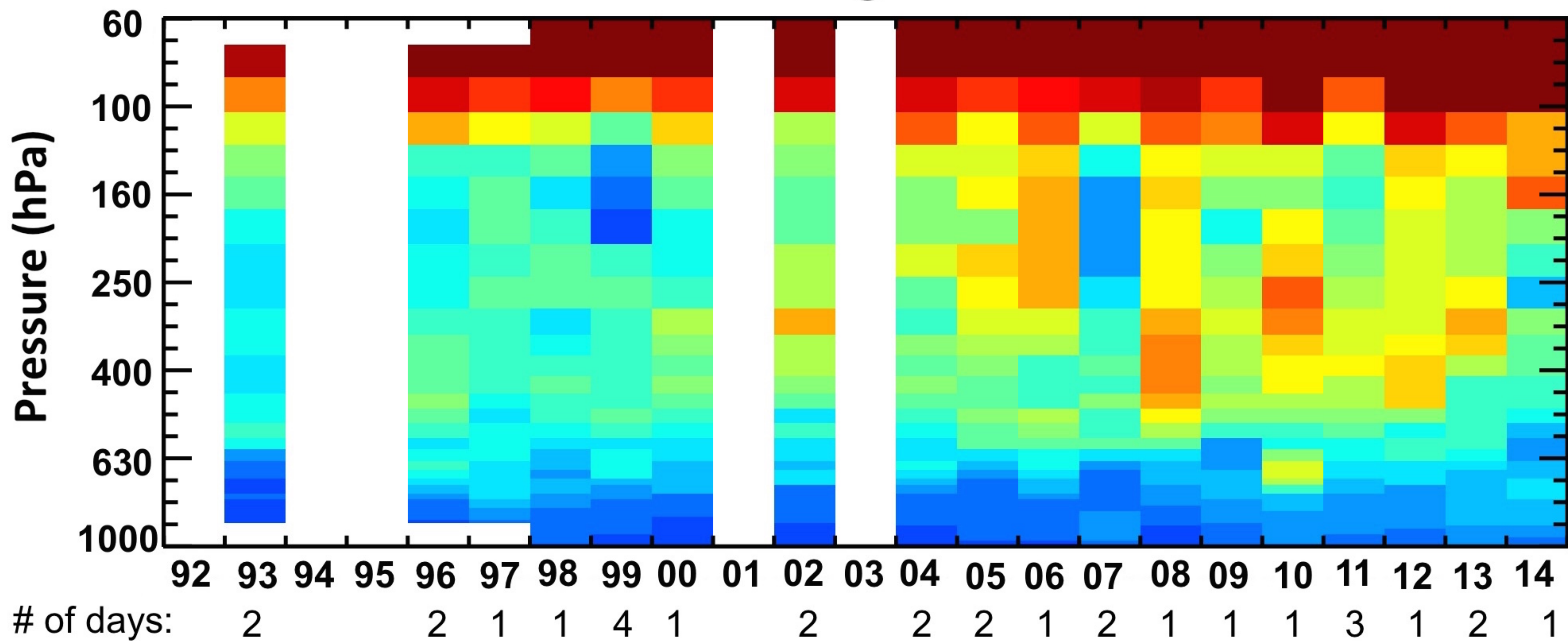
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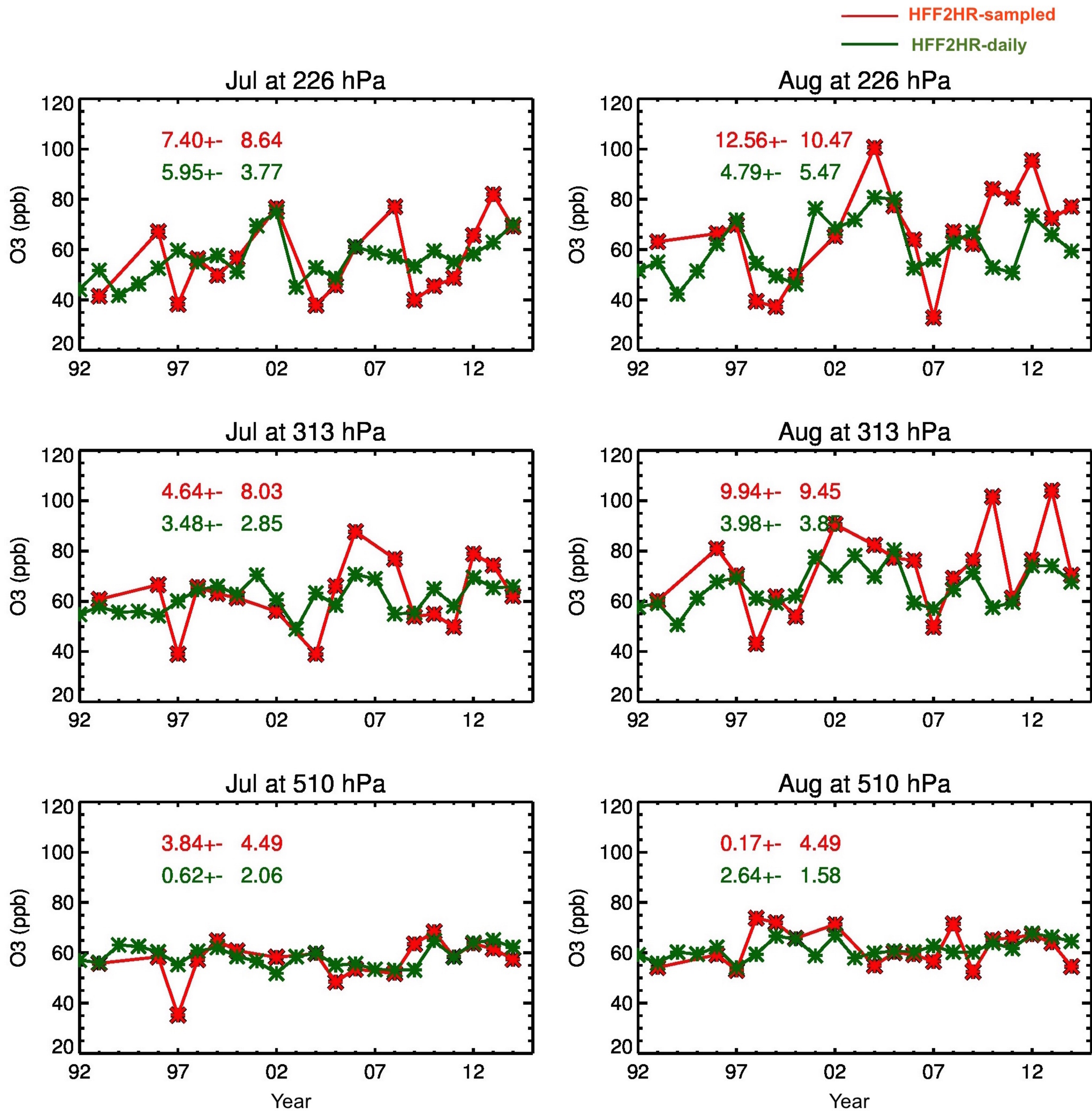
All model output used for this article can be obtained by contacting J. Liu (email:Junhua.liu@nasa.gov). I gratefully acknowledge the financial support by NASA's Atmospheric Chemistry Modeling and Analysis Program (ACMAP) (grants NNH12ZDA001N). Work was performed under contract with NASA at Goddard. The sonde program at Réunion was initiated in 1991/1992 with the support of the CNRS and the University of La Réunion; after 1997, additional funding came SHADOZ through the Upper Atmosphere Research Program of NASA (thanks to M. J. Kurylo and K. W. Jucks) with contributions from NOAA/GMD and NASA's Aura Validation. Thanks to J. L. Baray (the LaMP/OPGC, FRANCE) for sonde data from September 1992 to December 1997. Sonde data after 1998 can be obtained from SHADOZ website (<http://croc.gsfc.nasa.gov/shadoz/>). Thanks to J. M. Metzger (University of La Réunion) for on-going technical support of the sounding program. I would like to thank S. Pawson and K. Wargan for their helpful discussion on GMAO assimilated ozone products. I benefited from useful discussions with J. Ziemke.

July

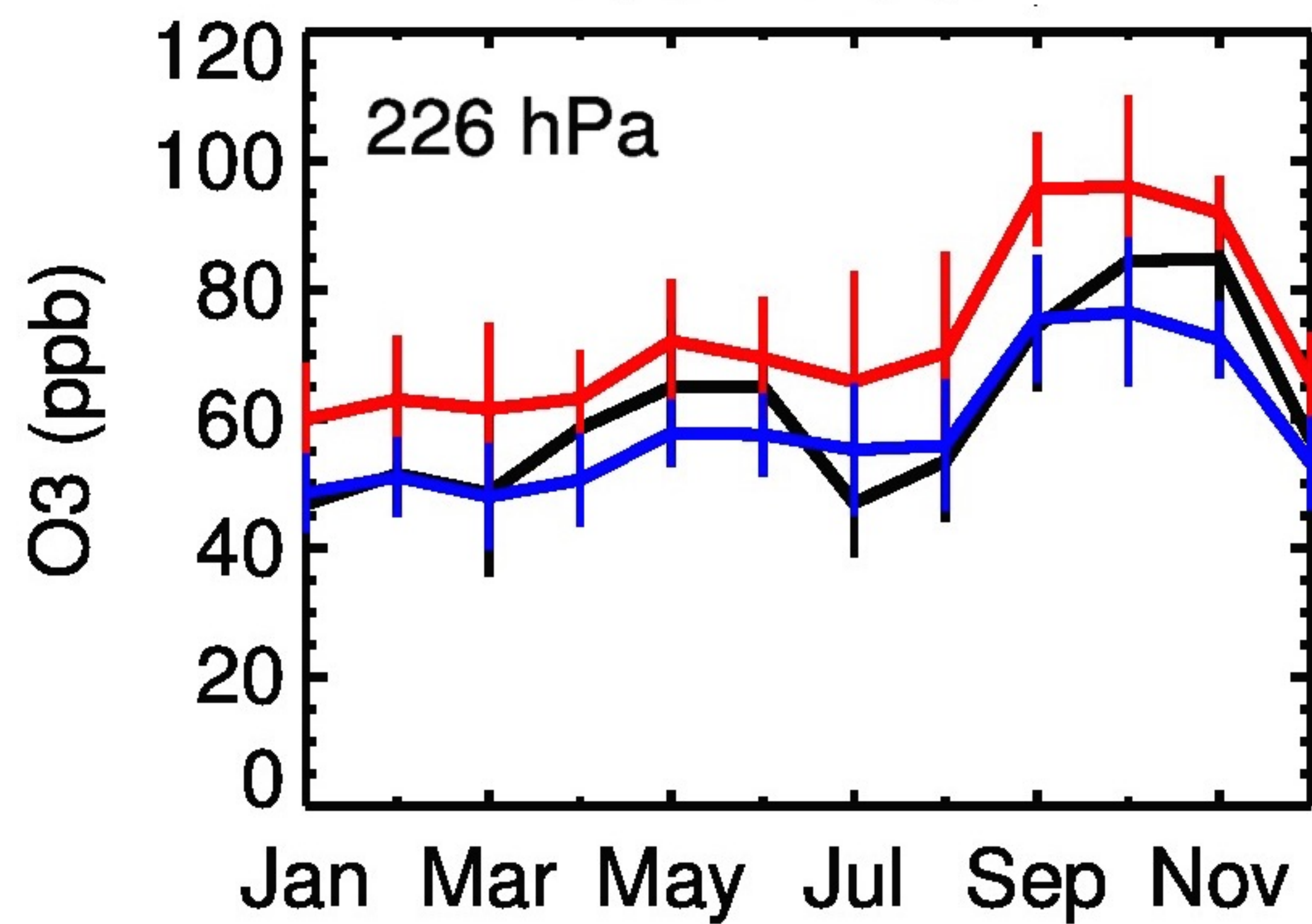


August

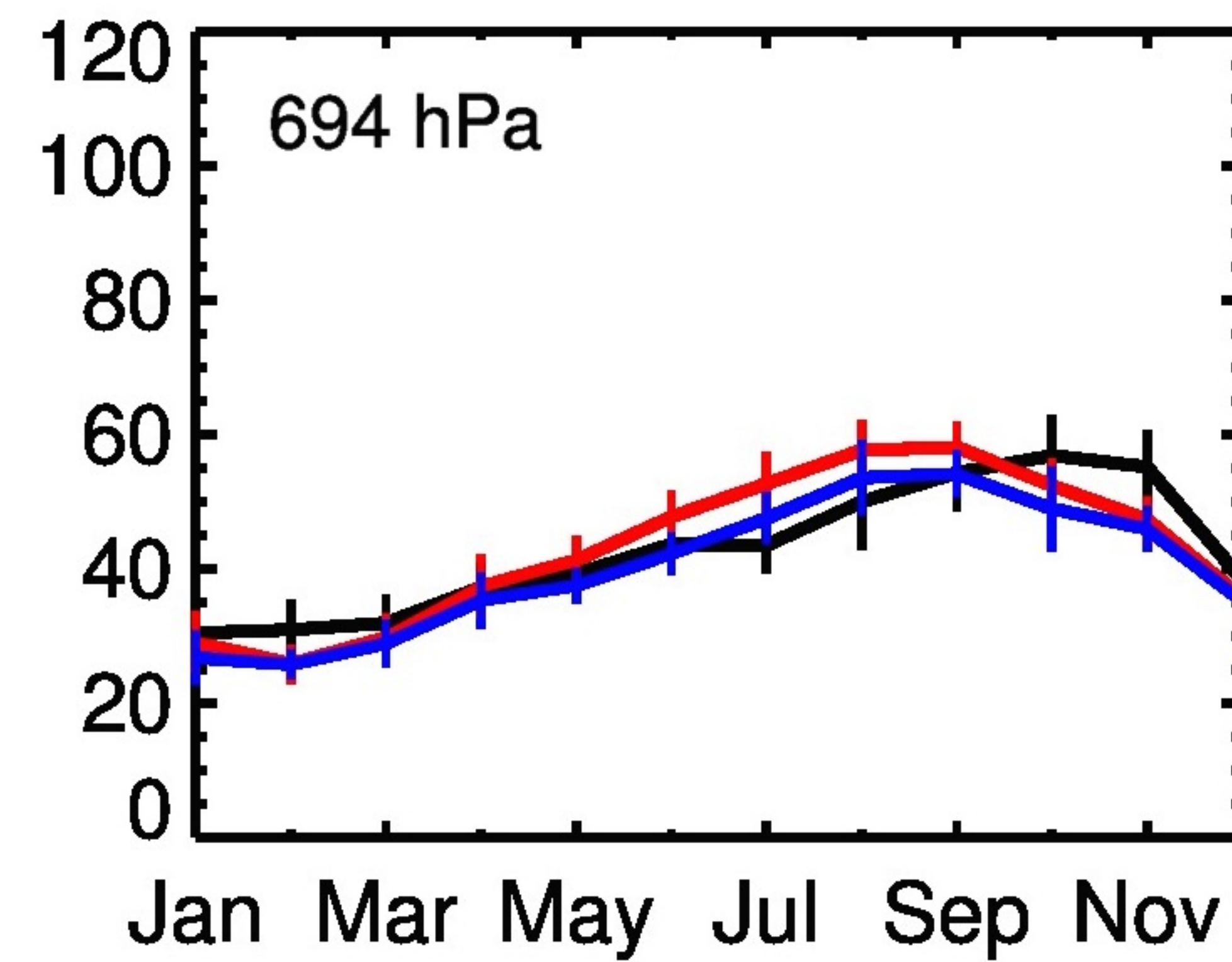
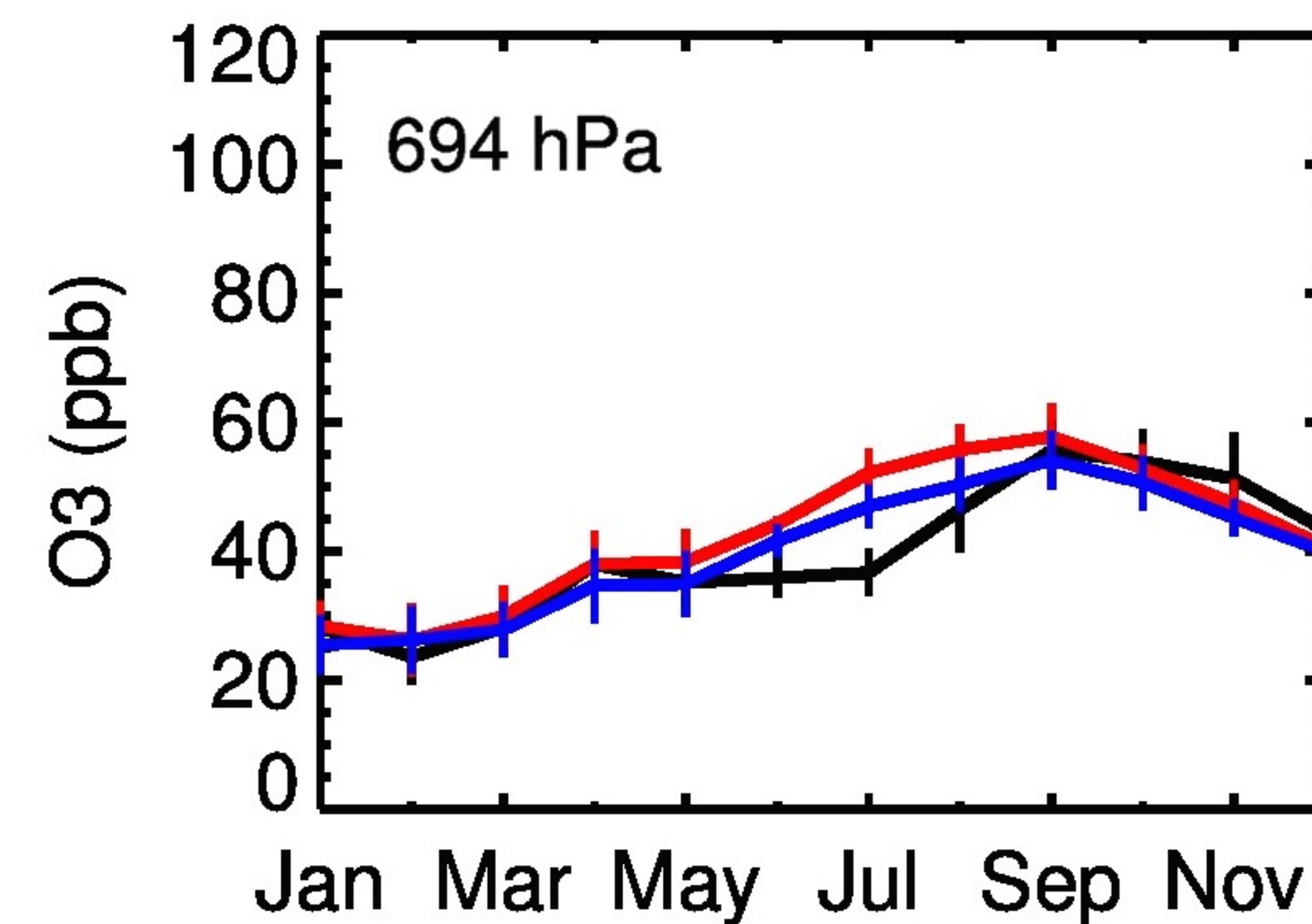
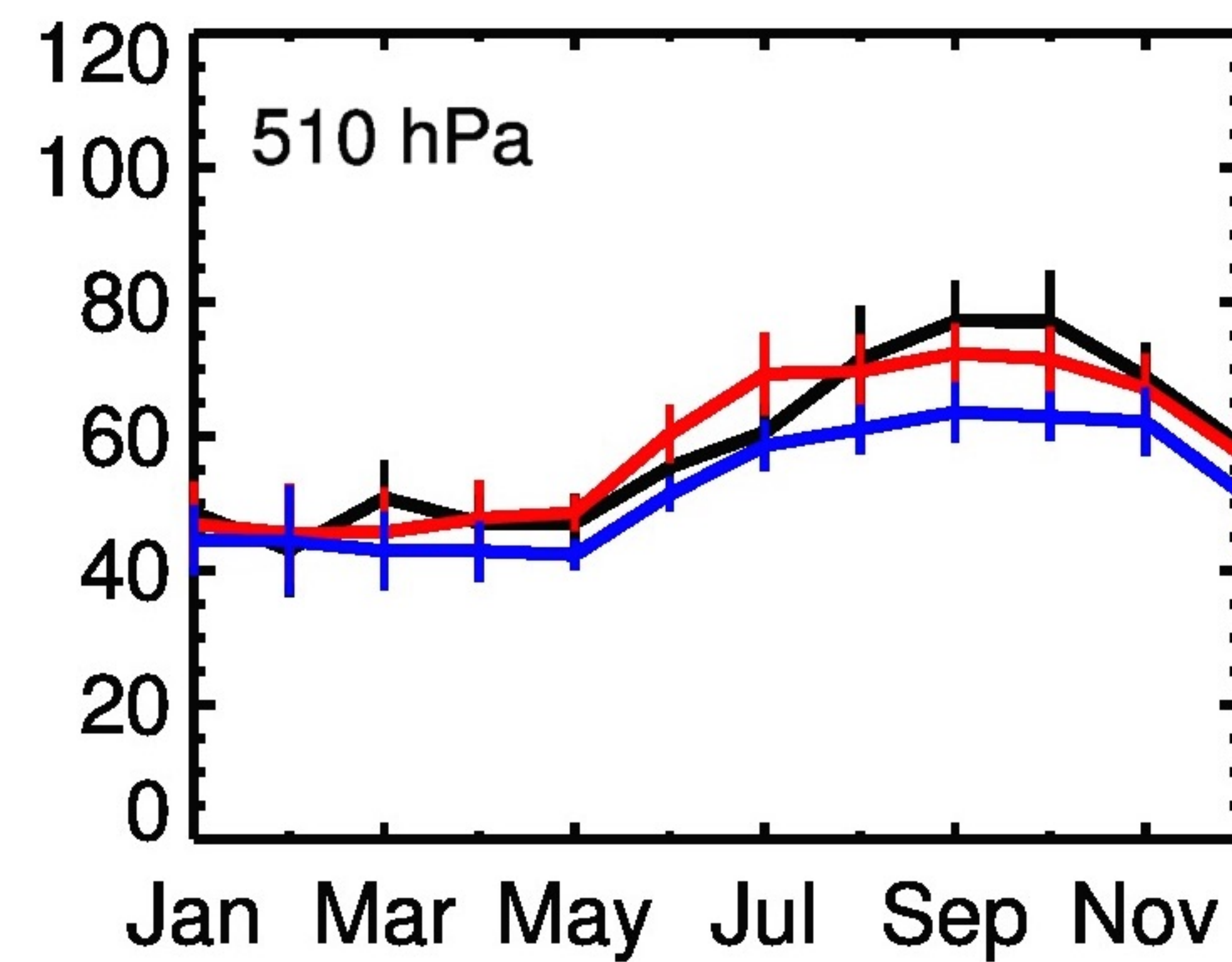
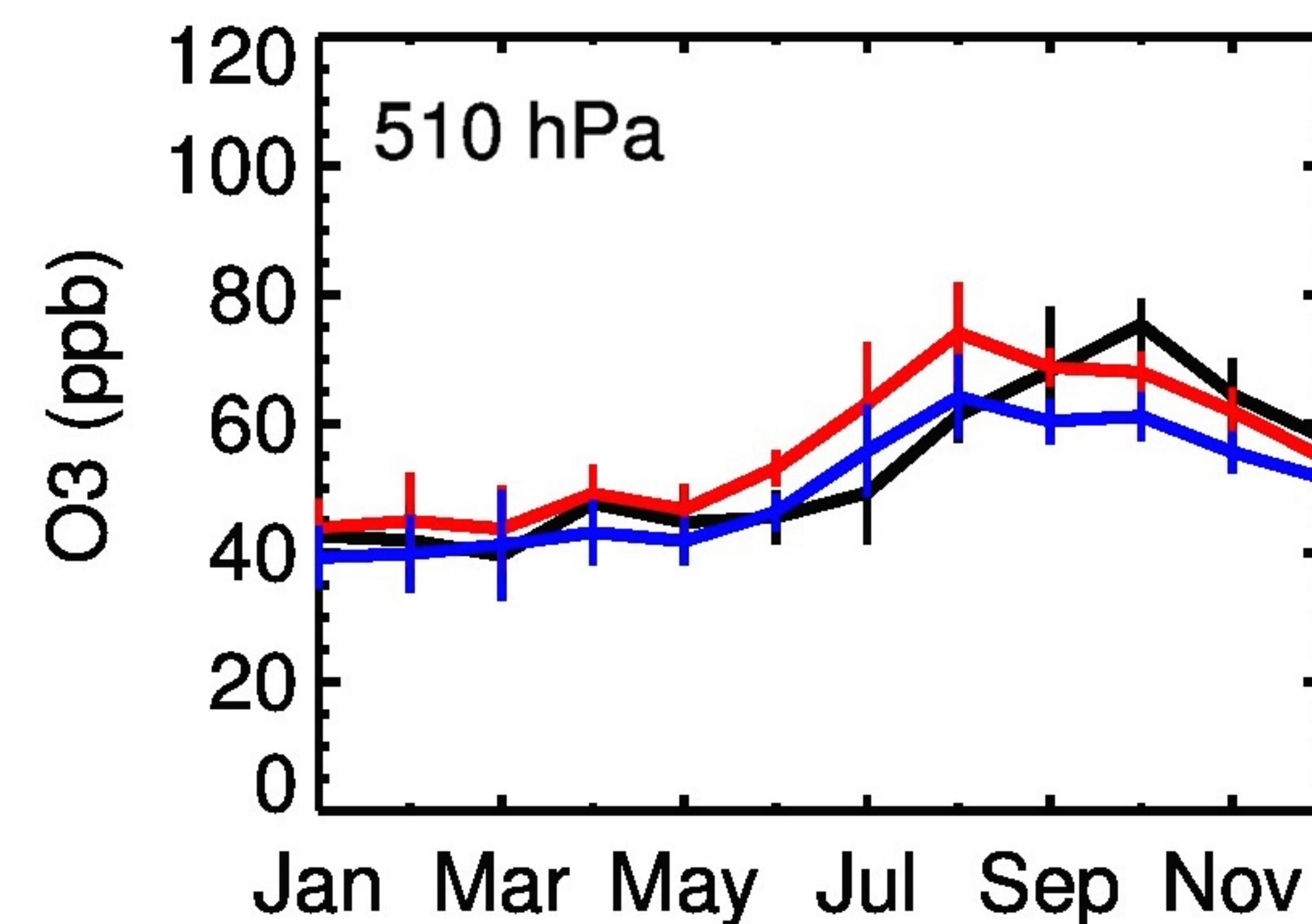
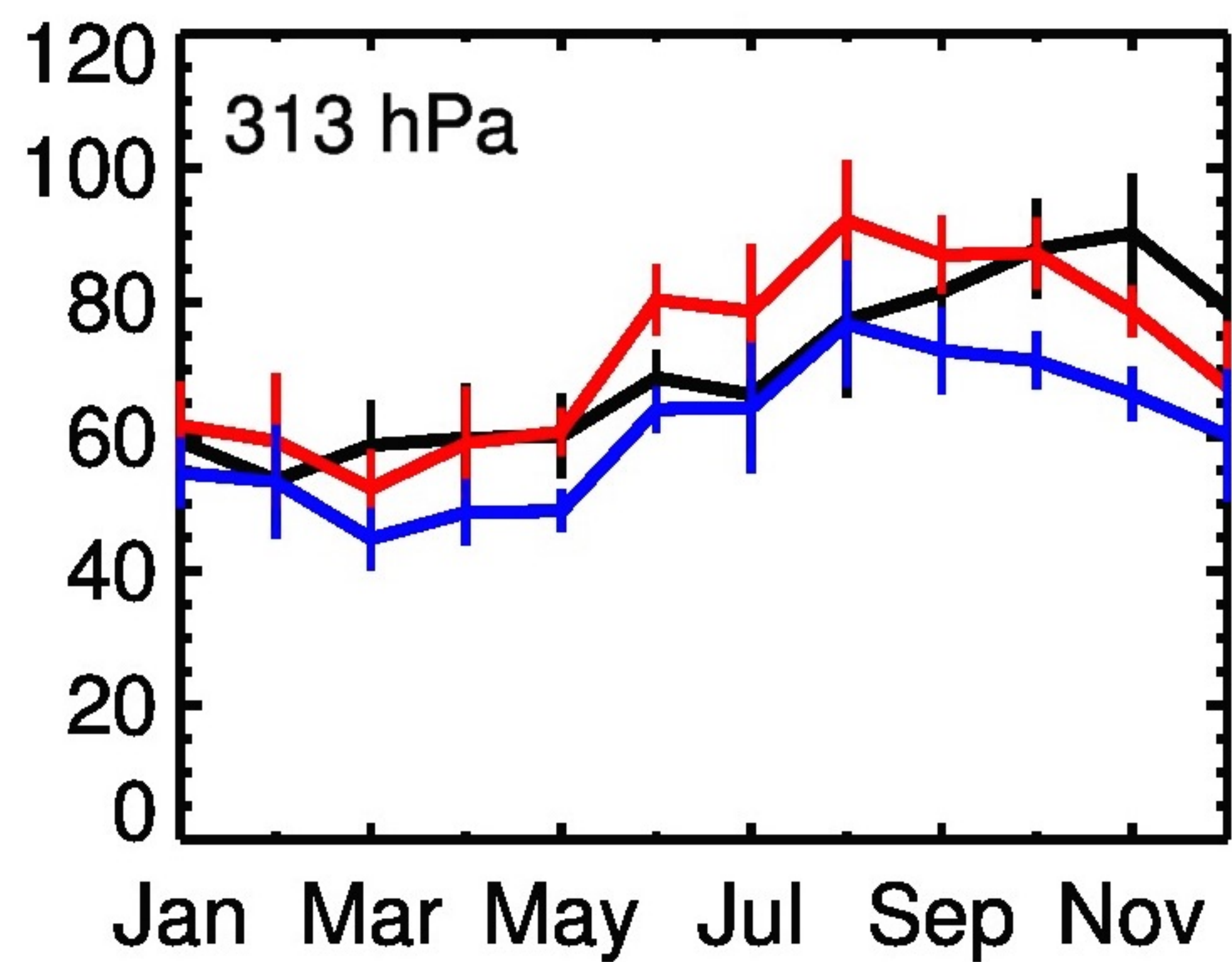
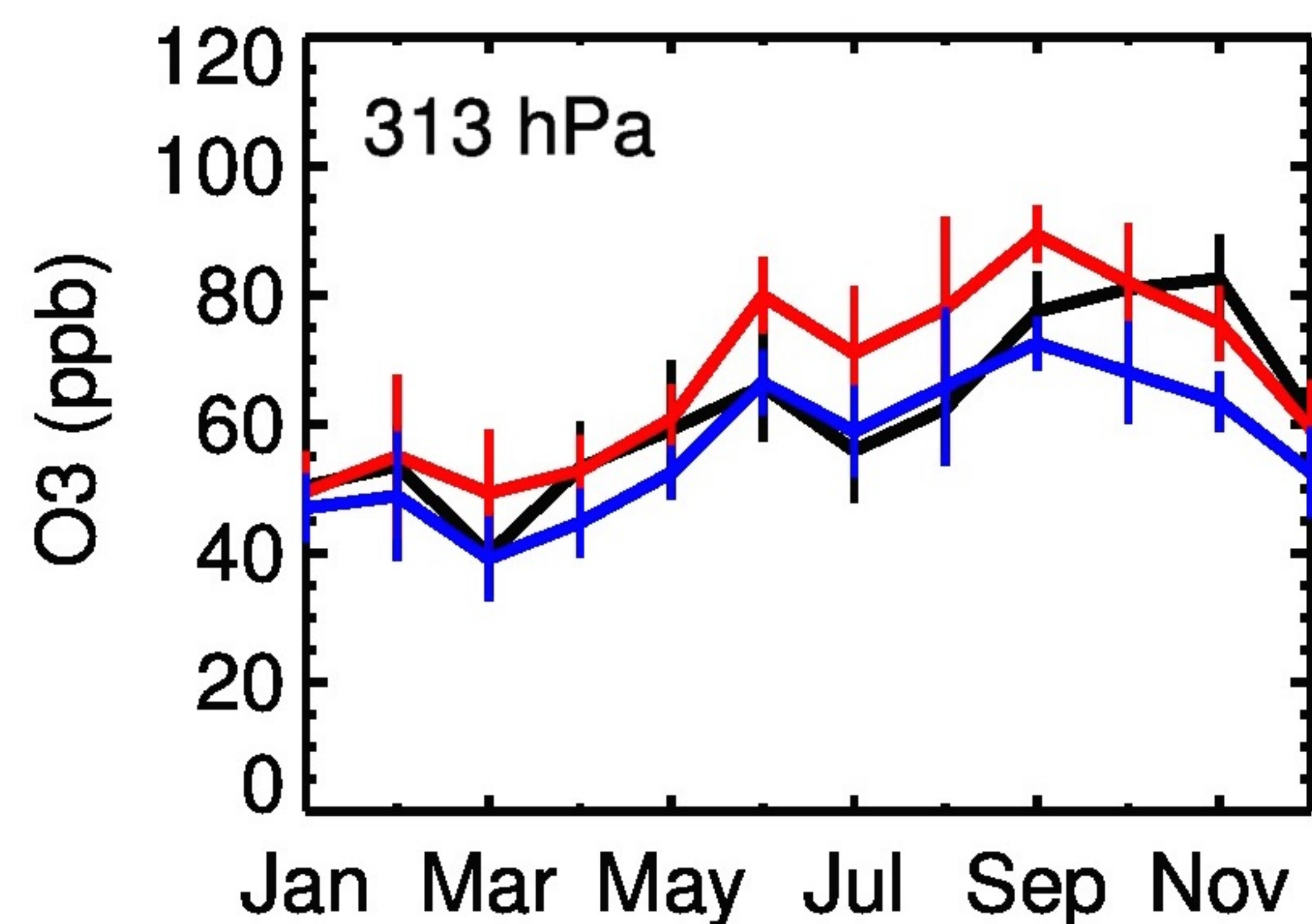
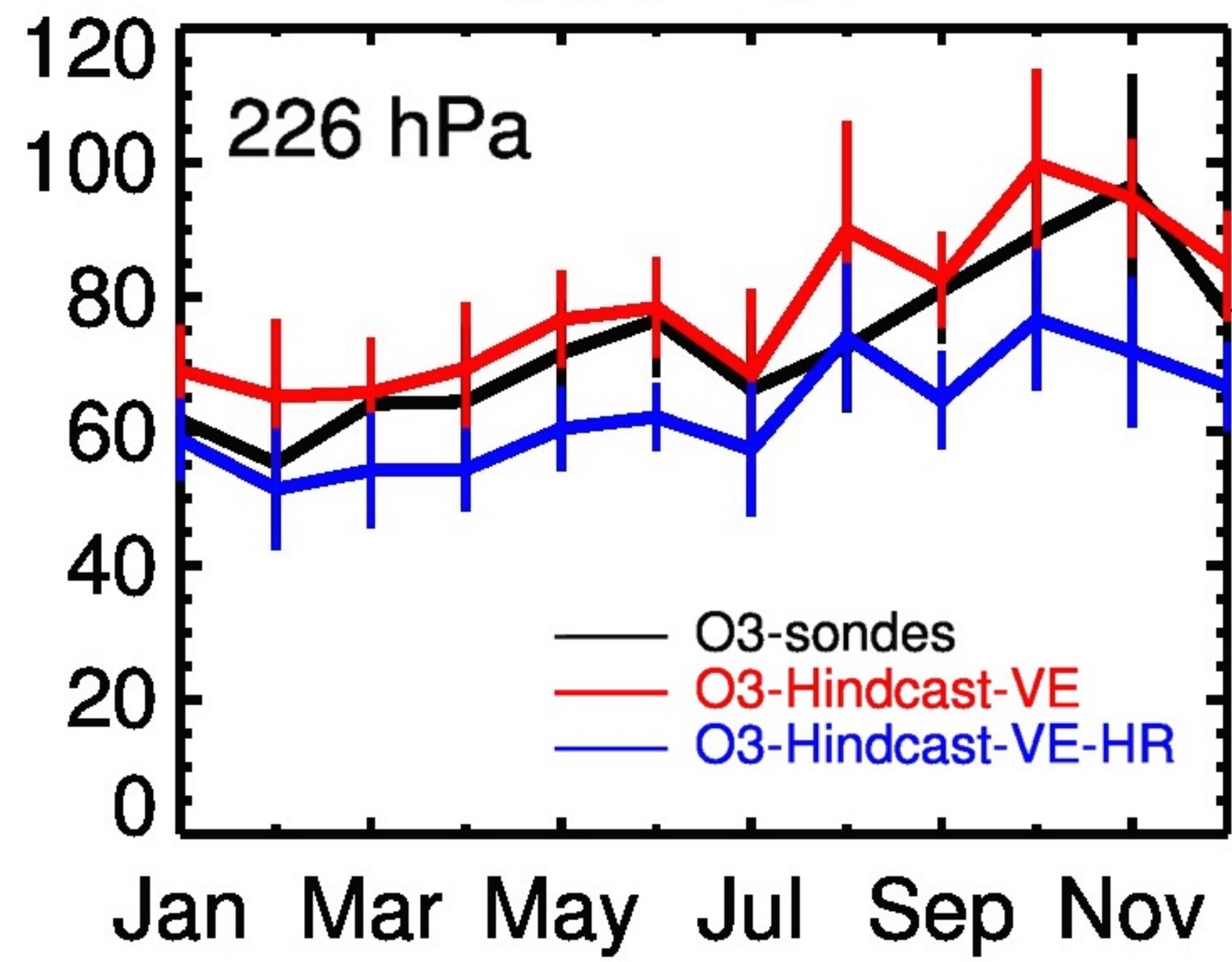




1992-2002



2003-2014



Month

Month

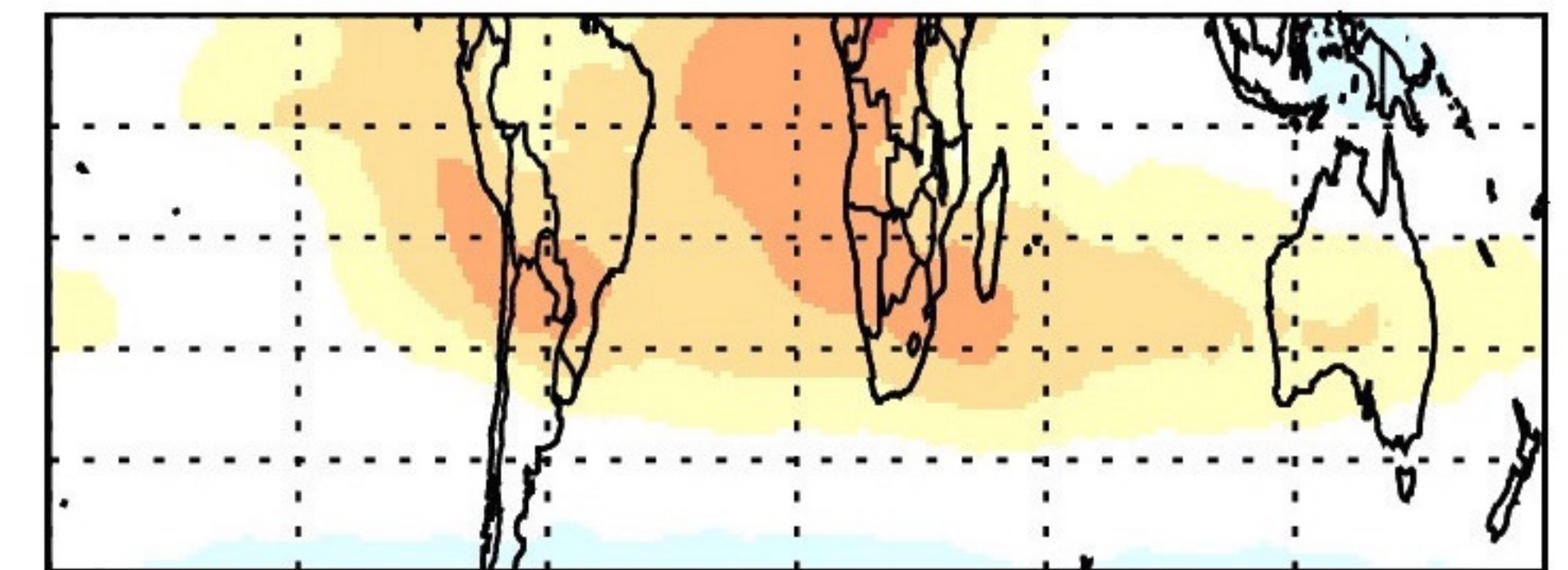
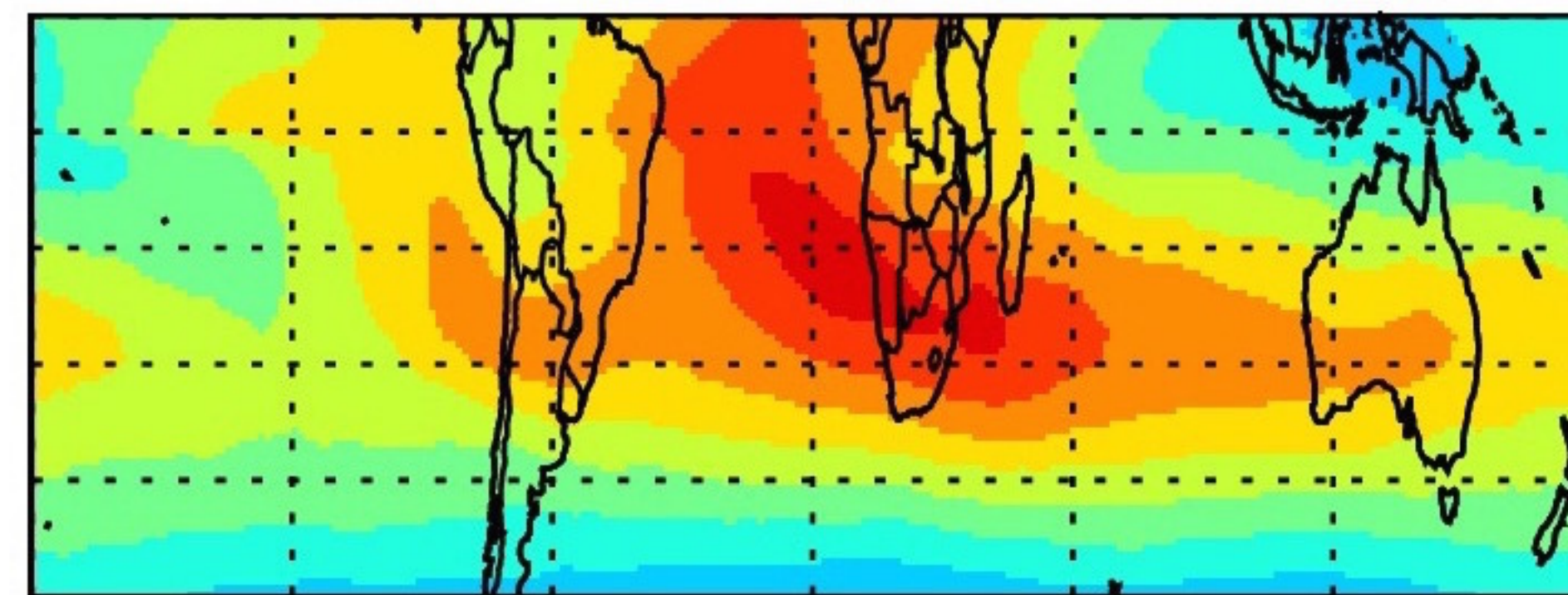
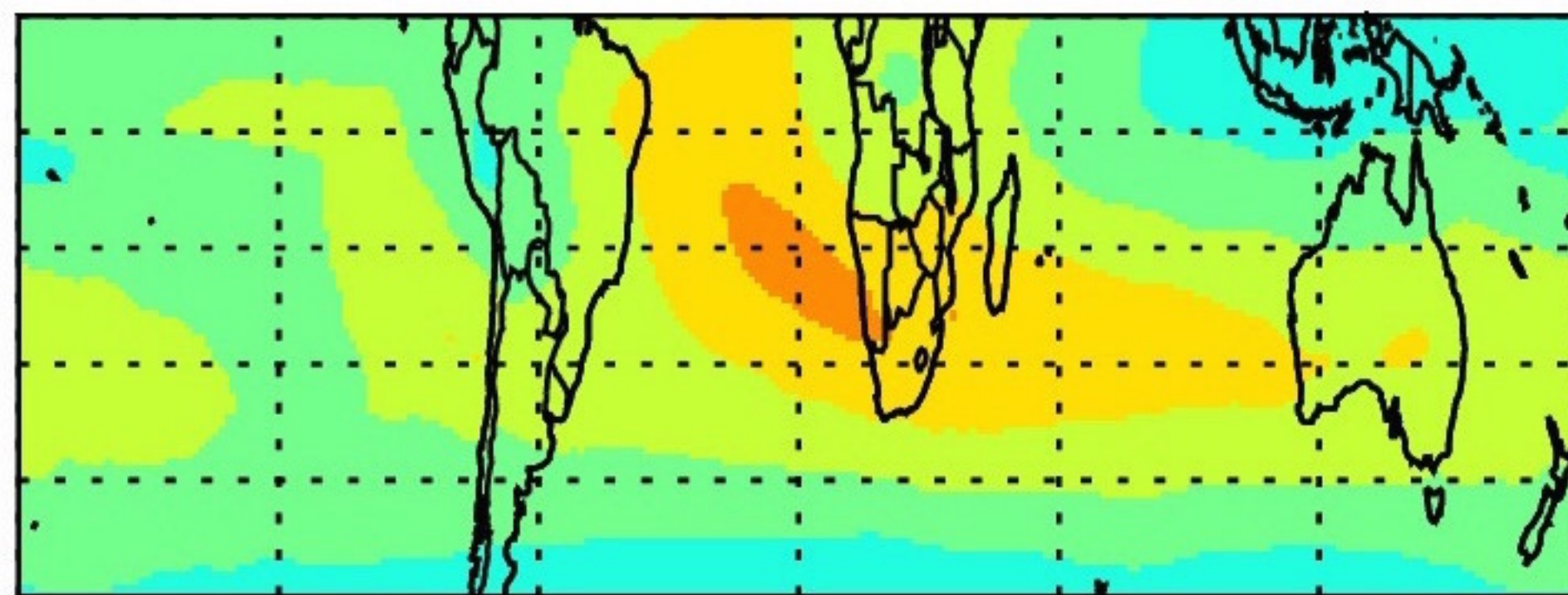
Averaged over 2005-2012

GMAO TOC + 2.5 DU

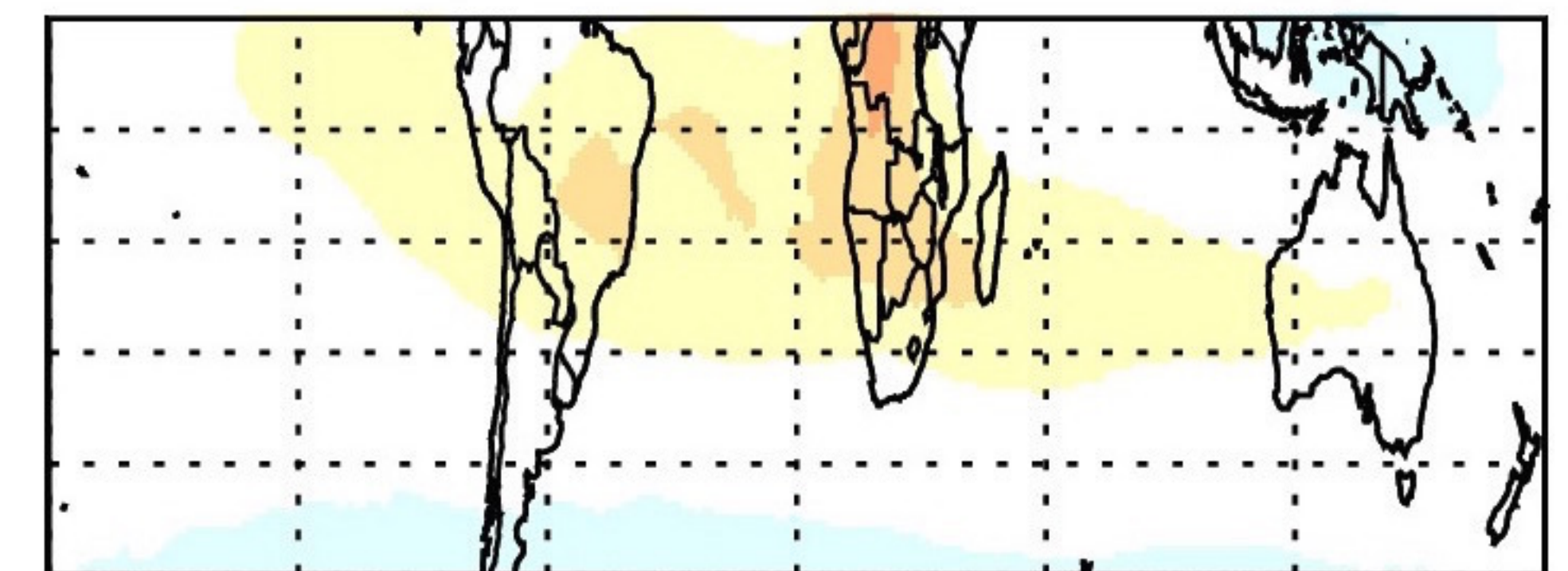
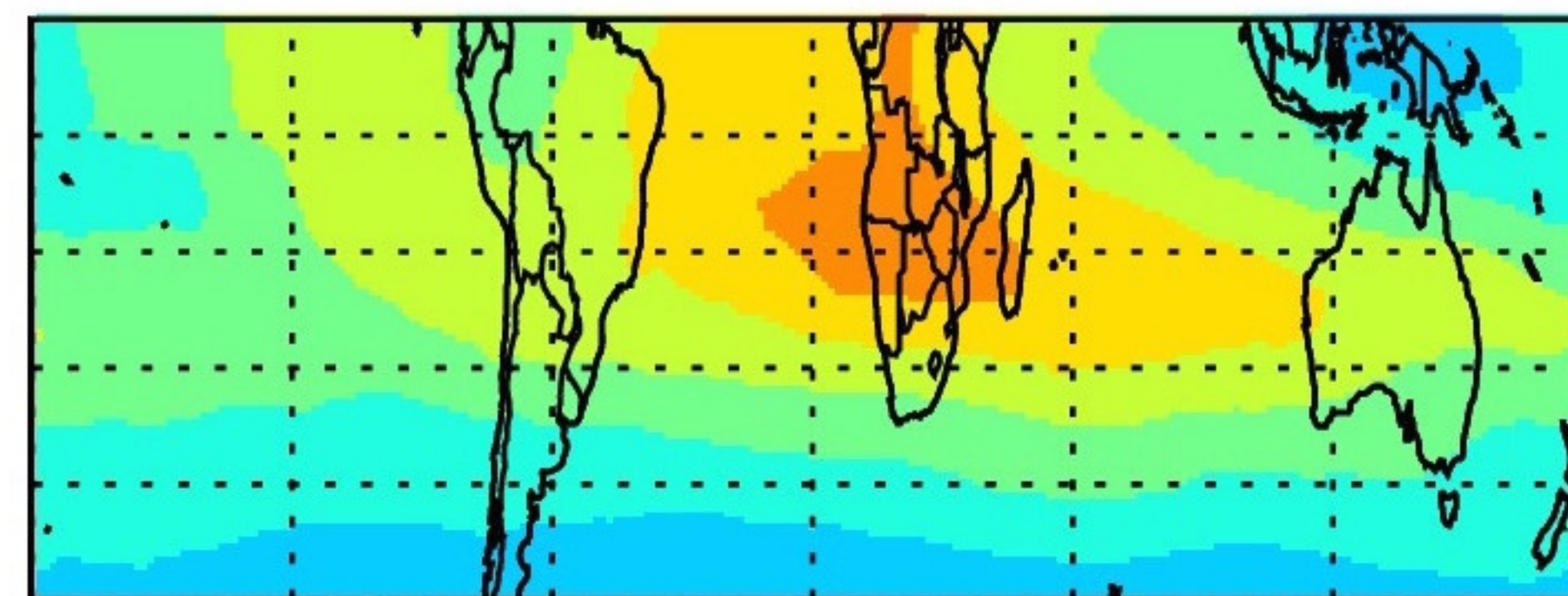
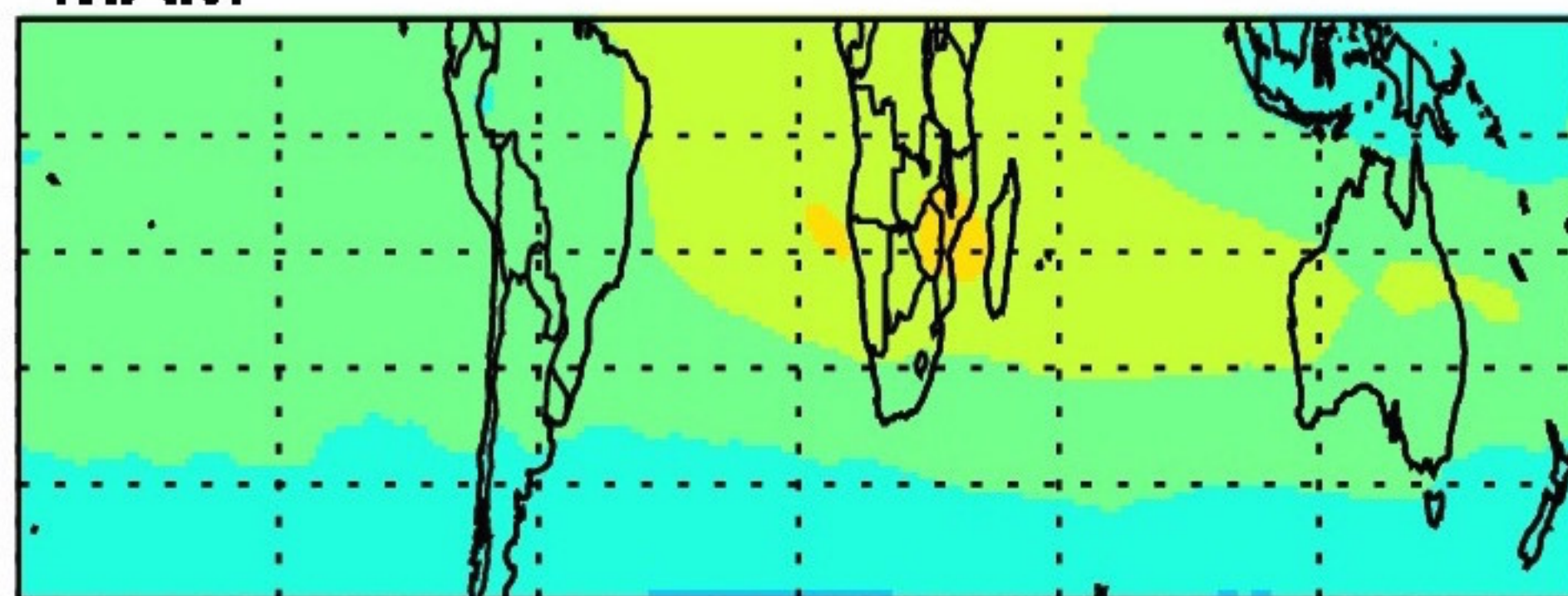
GMI TOC

GMI - GMAO

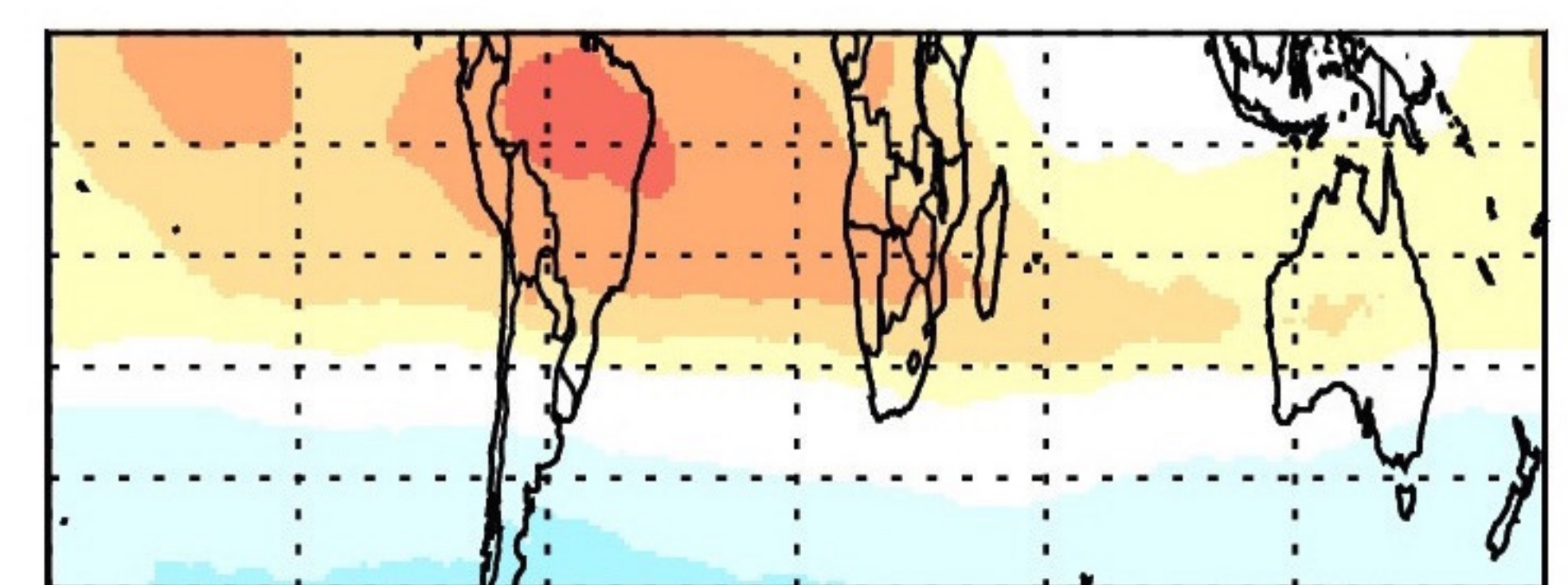
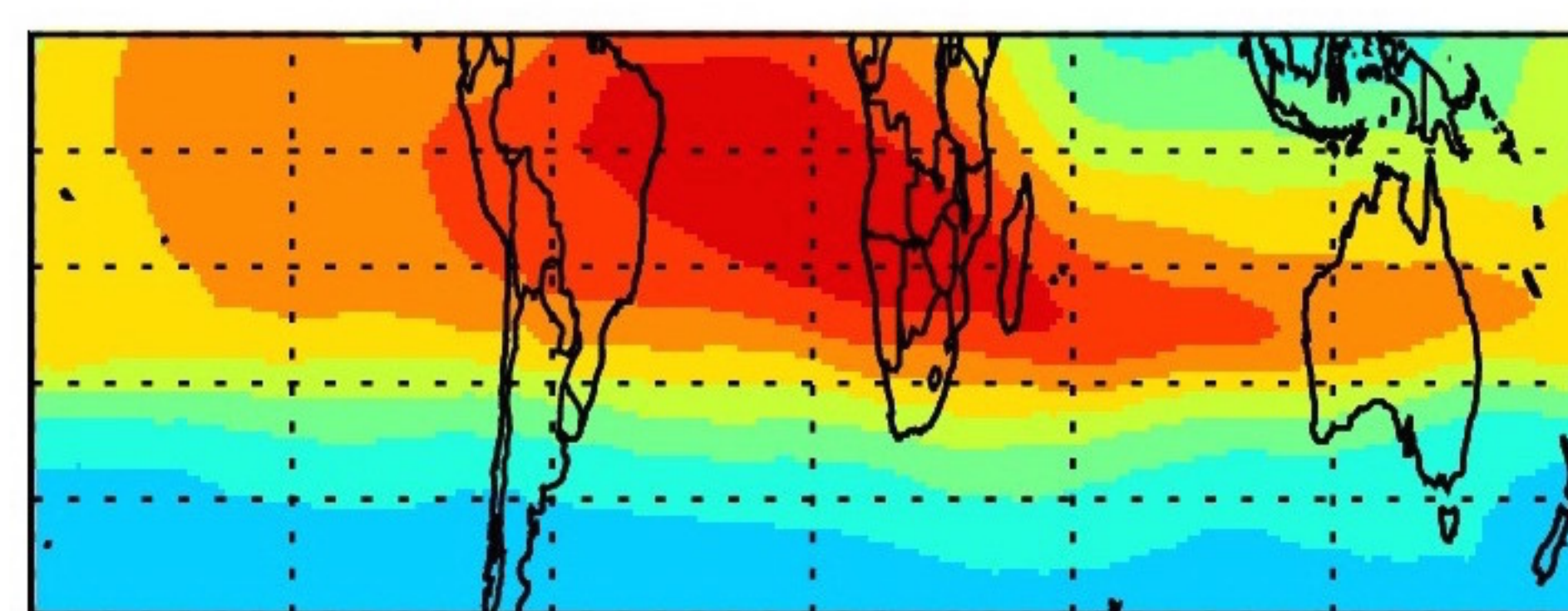
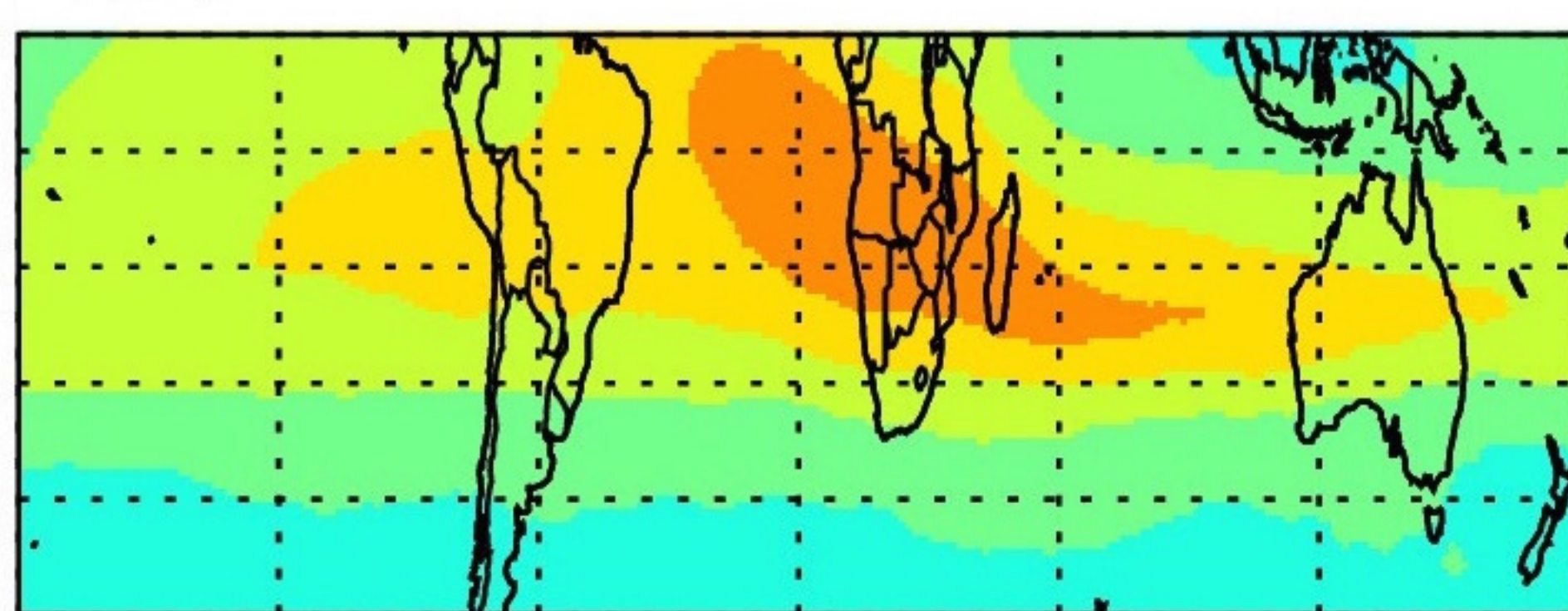
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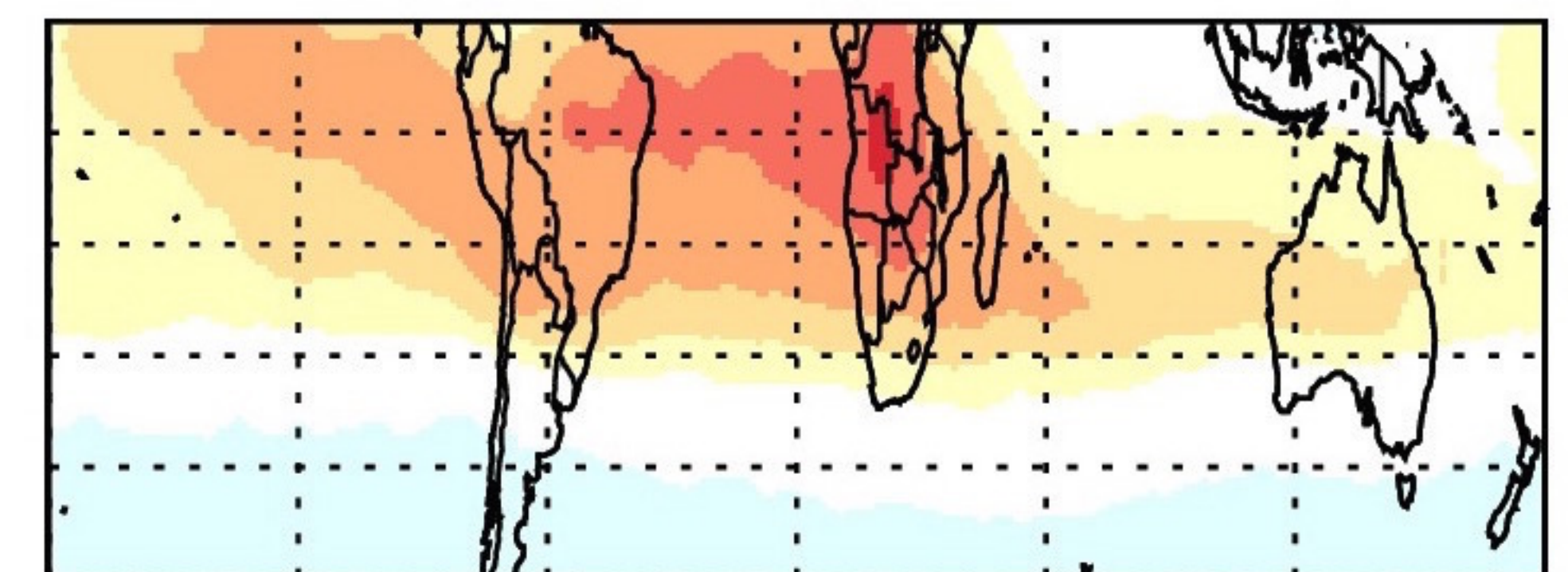
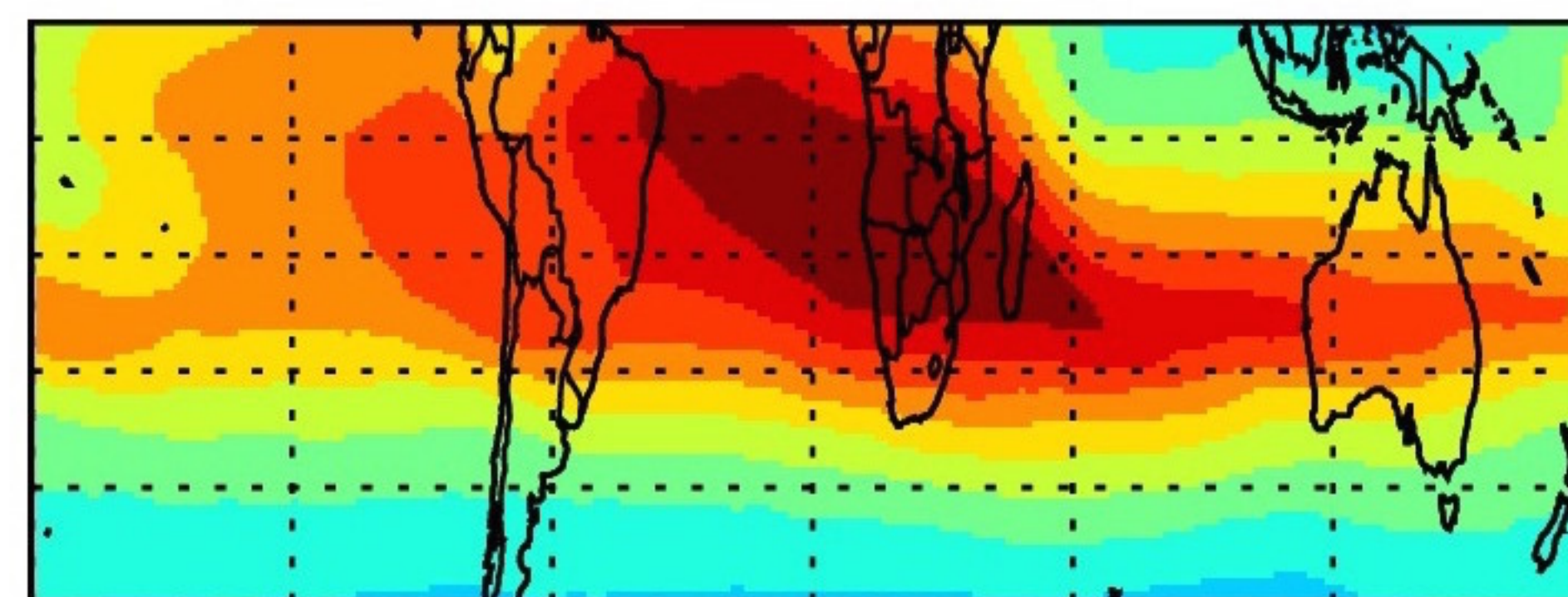
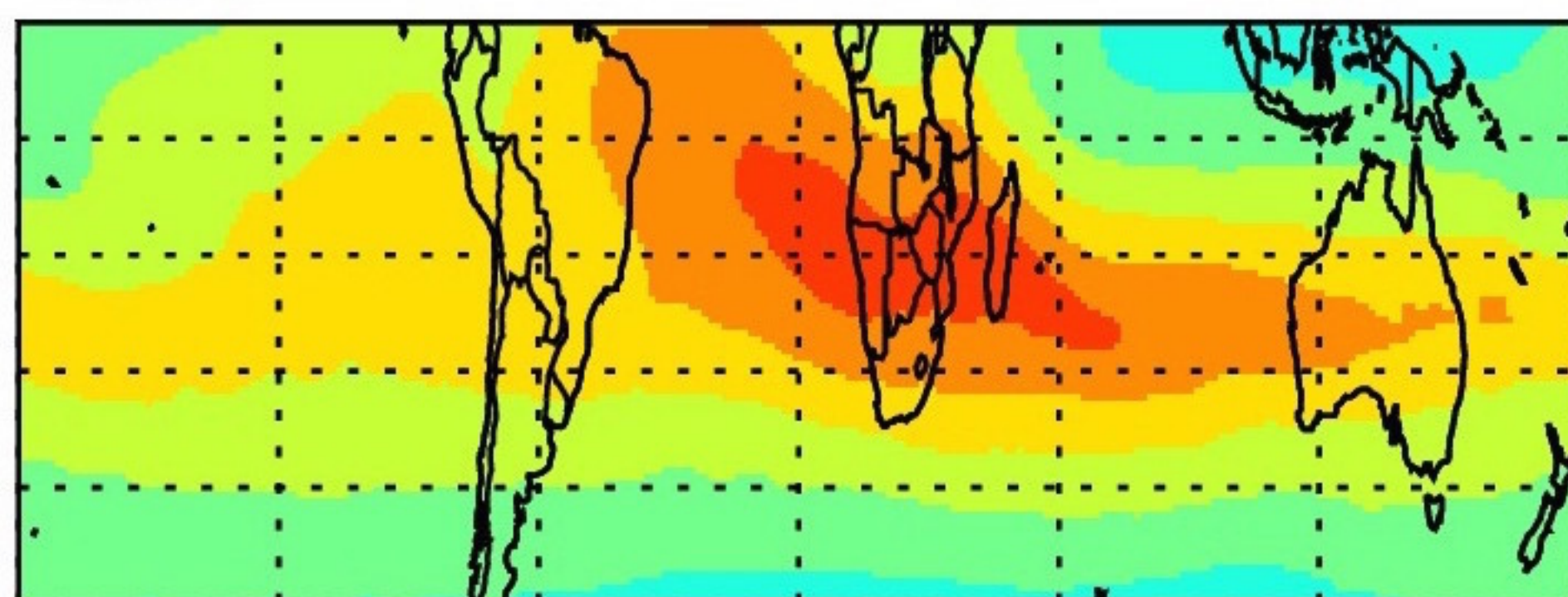
MAM



JJA



SON



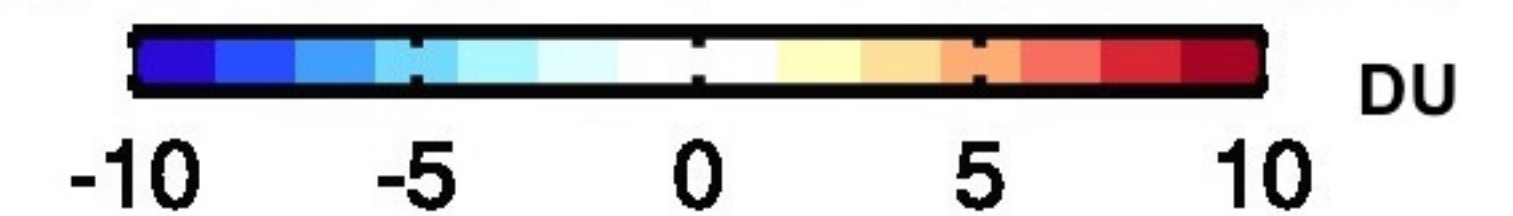
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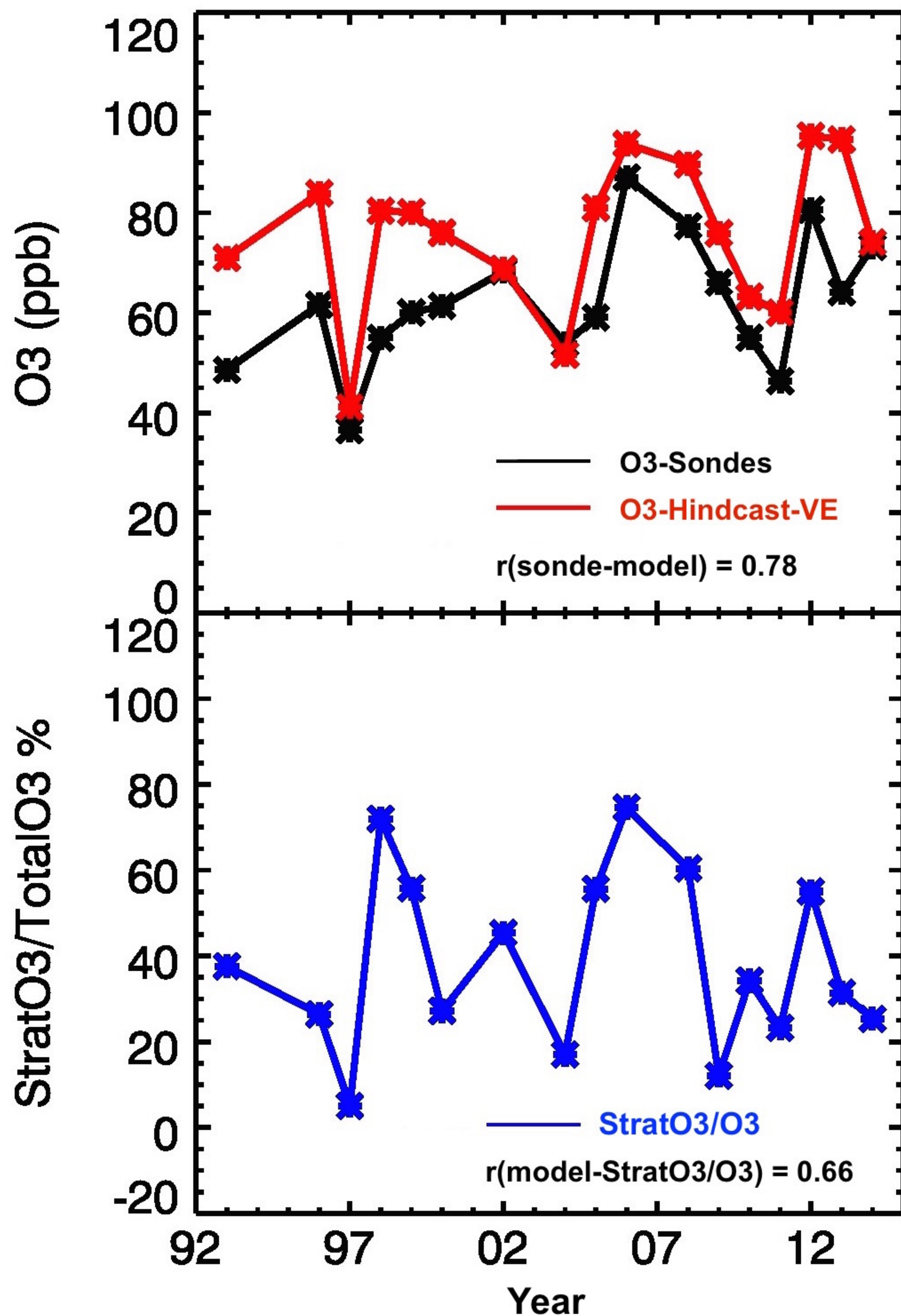
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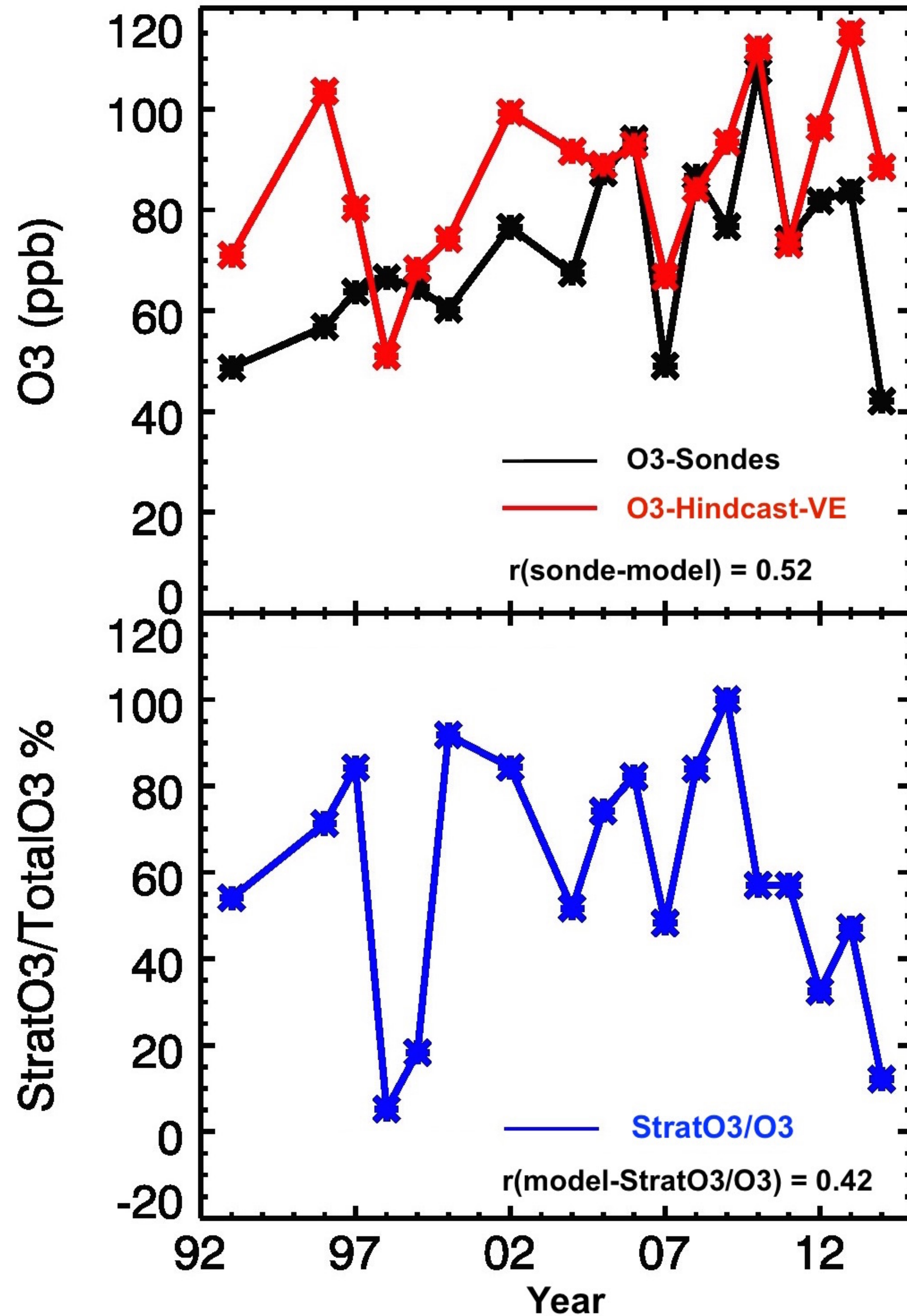
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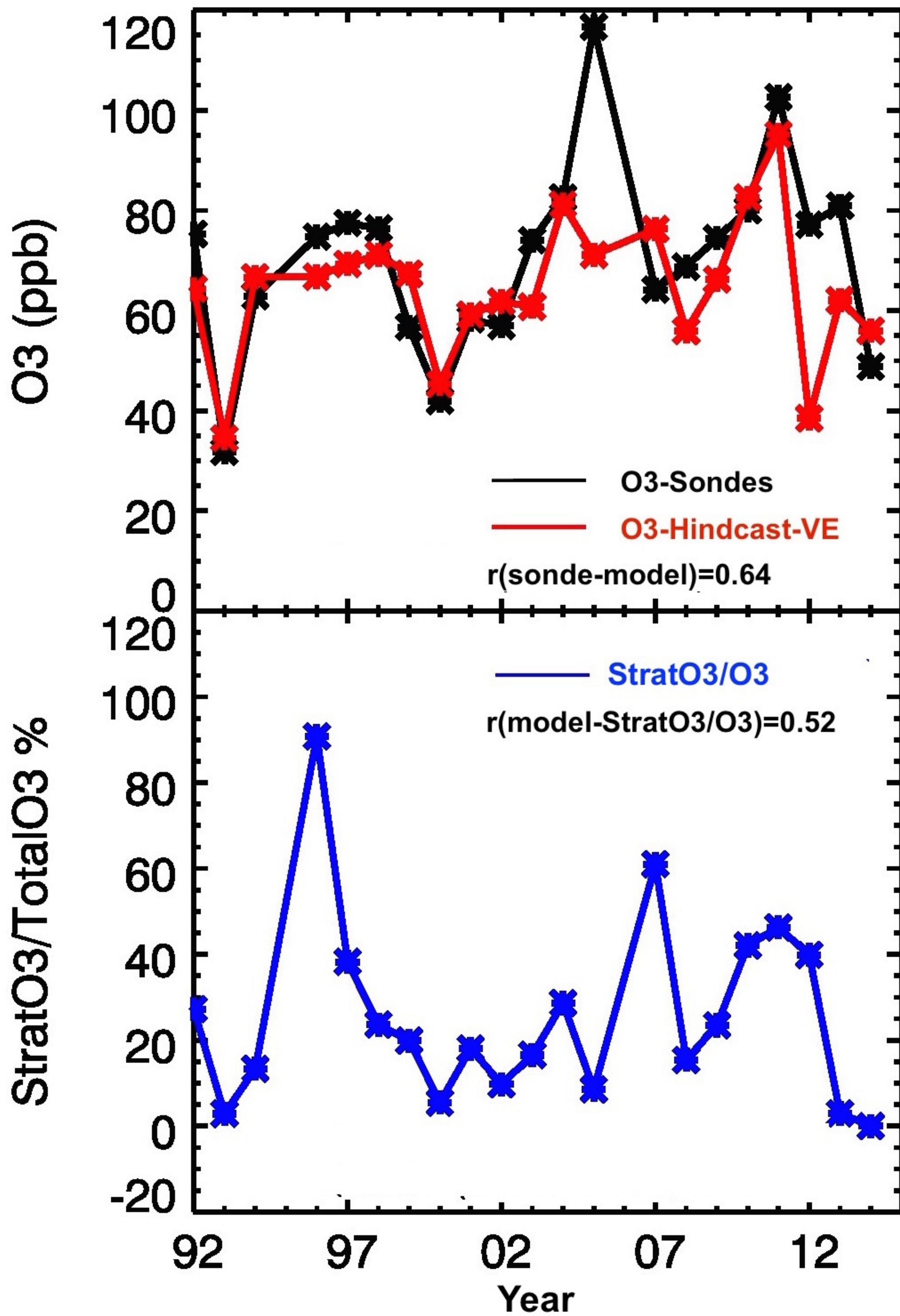
July



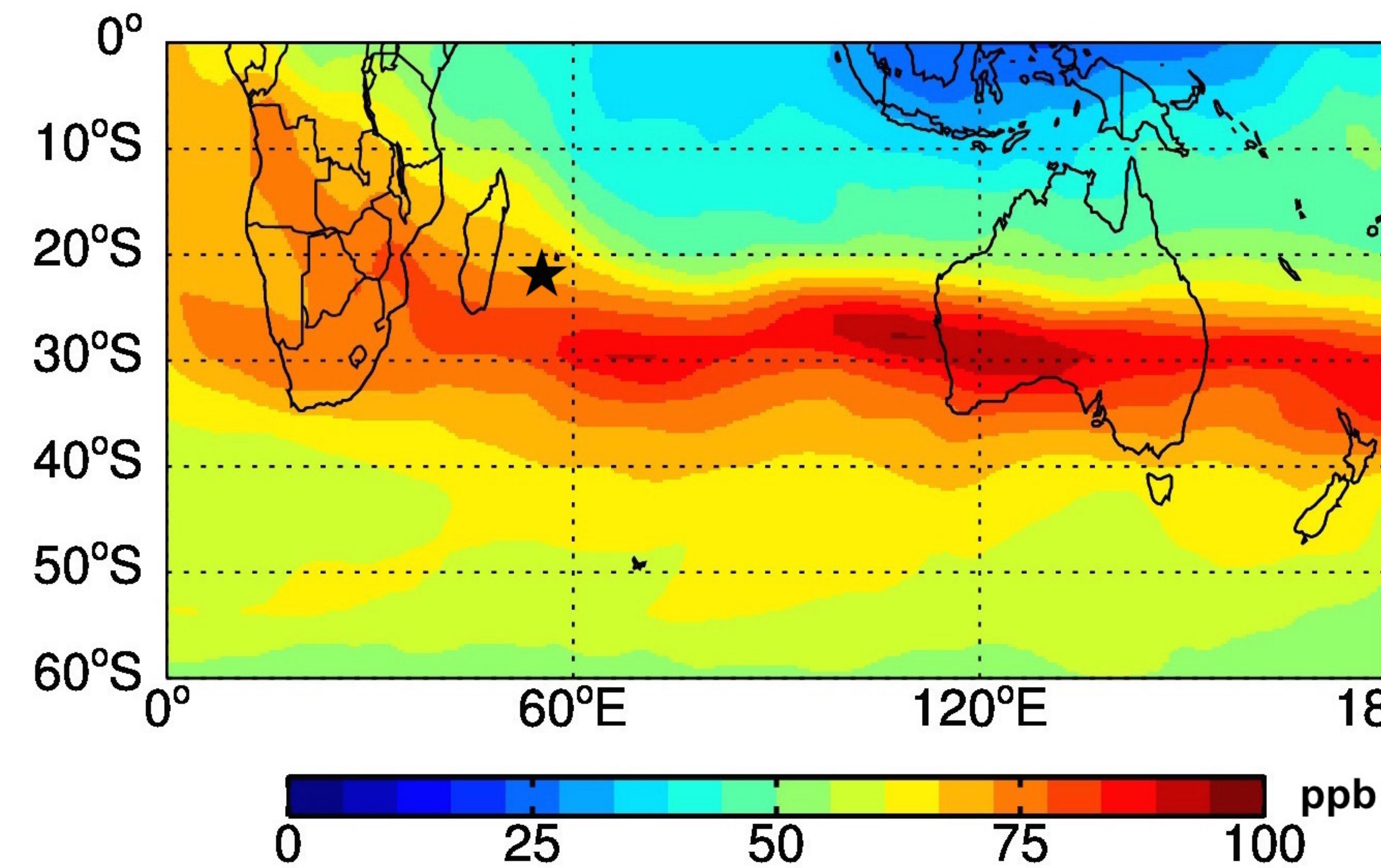
August



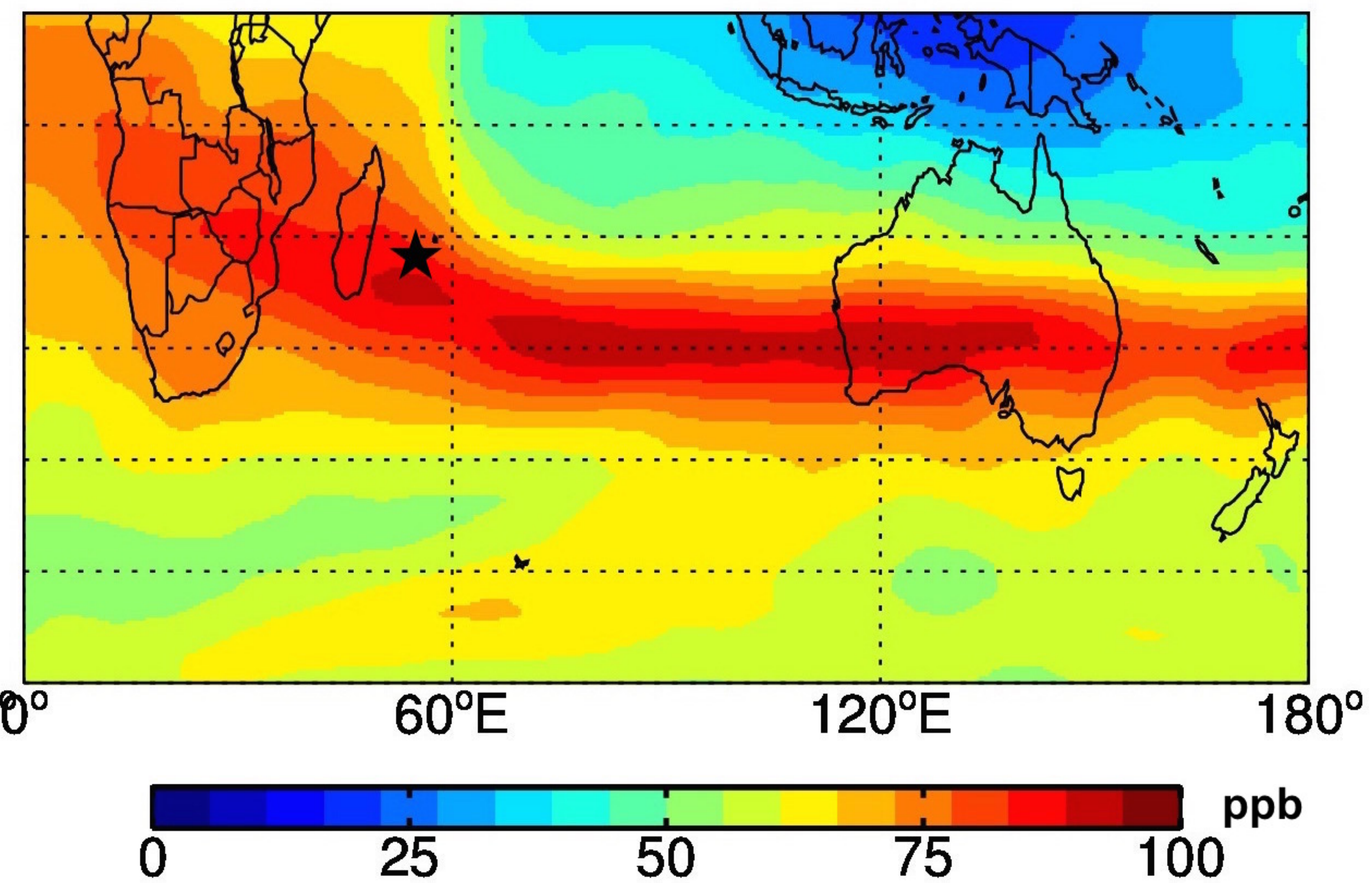
December



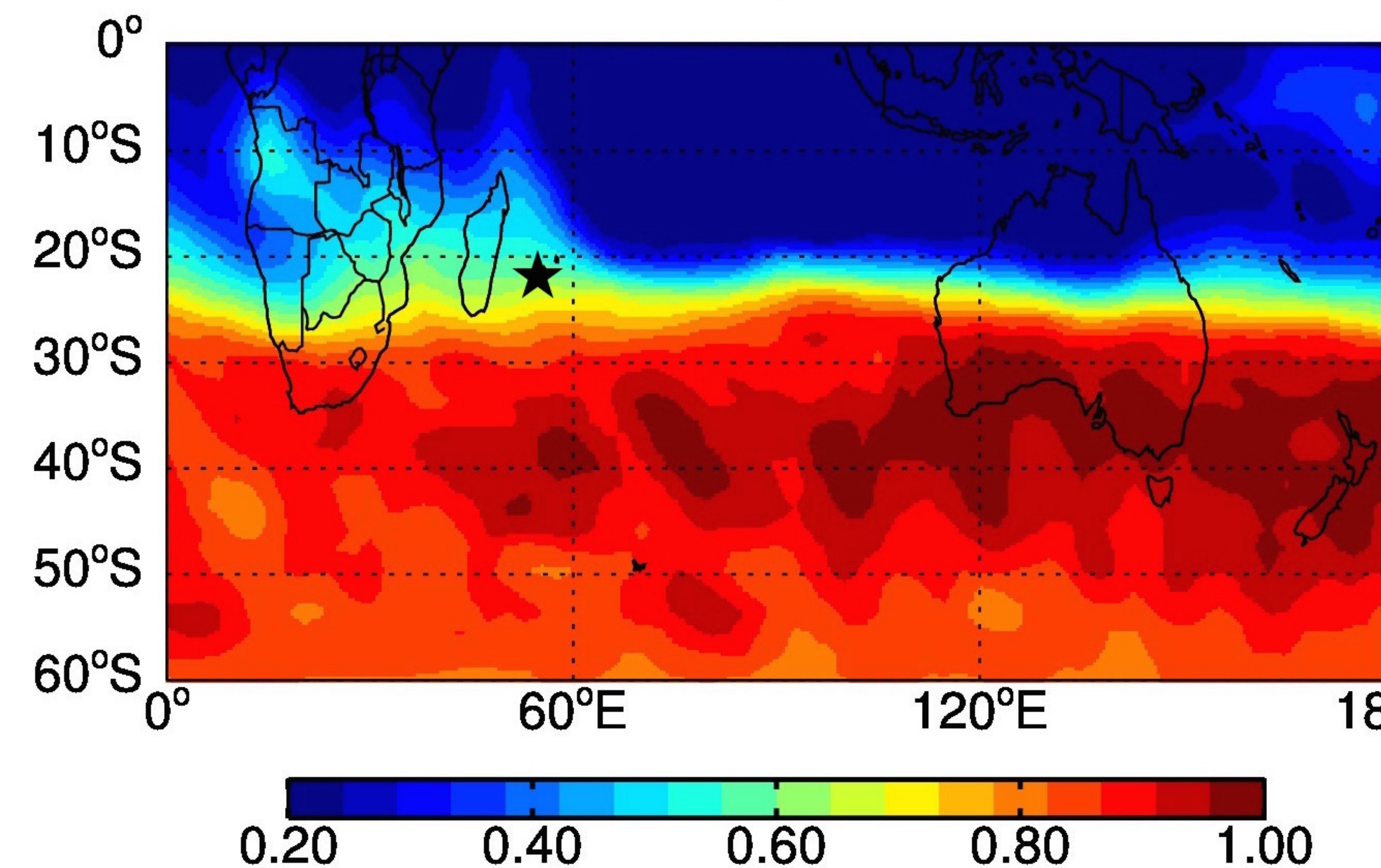
a) O3, July 1997 at 313 hPa



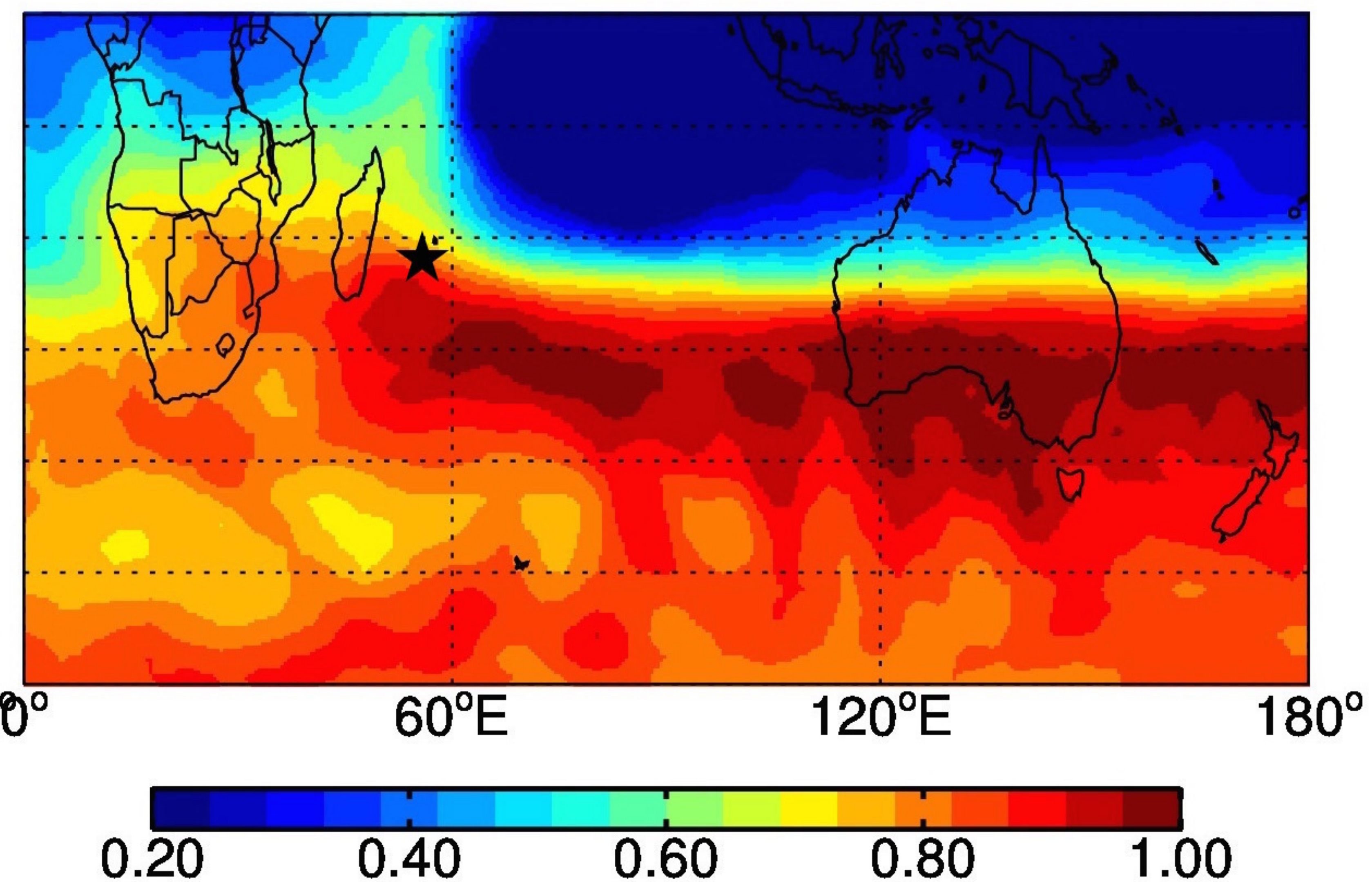
b) O3, July 2006 at 313 hPa



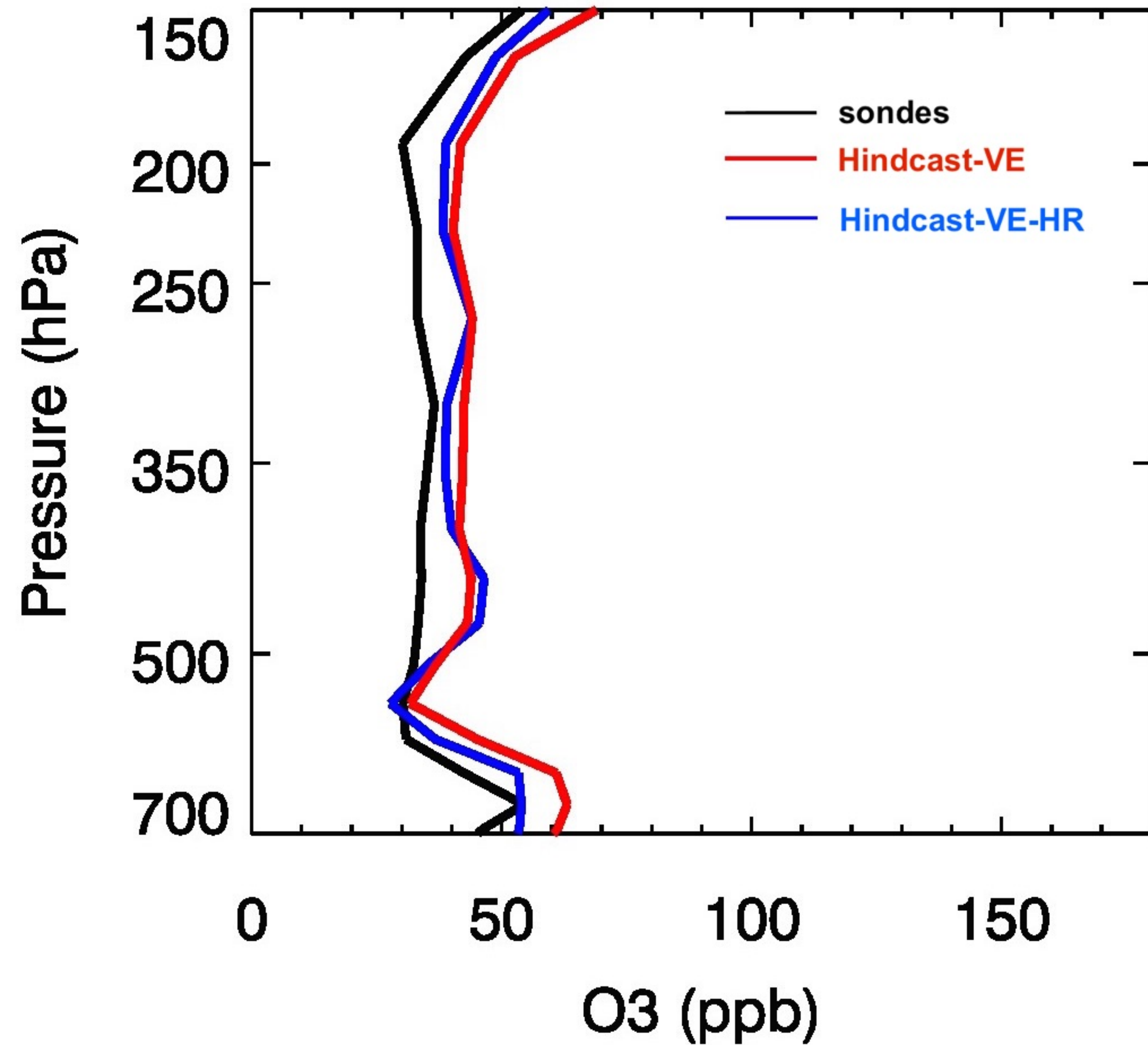
c) StratO3/O3, July 1997 at 313 hPa



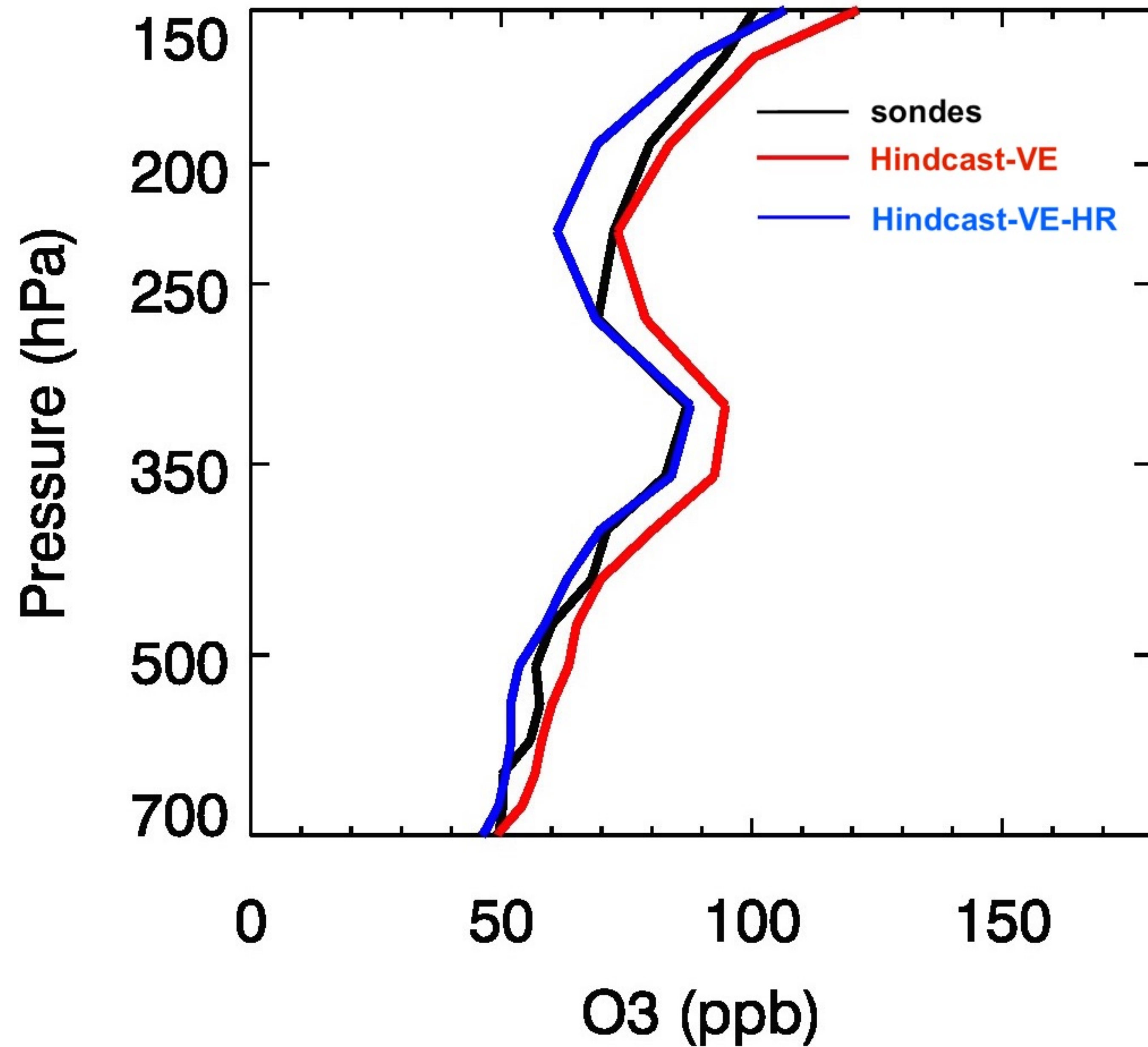
d) StratO3/O3, July 2006 at 313 hPa



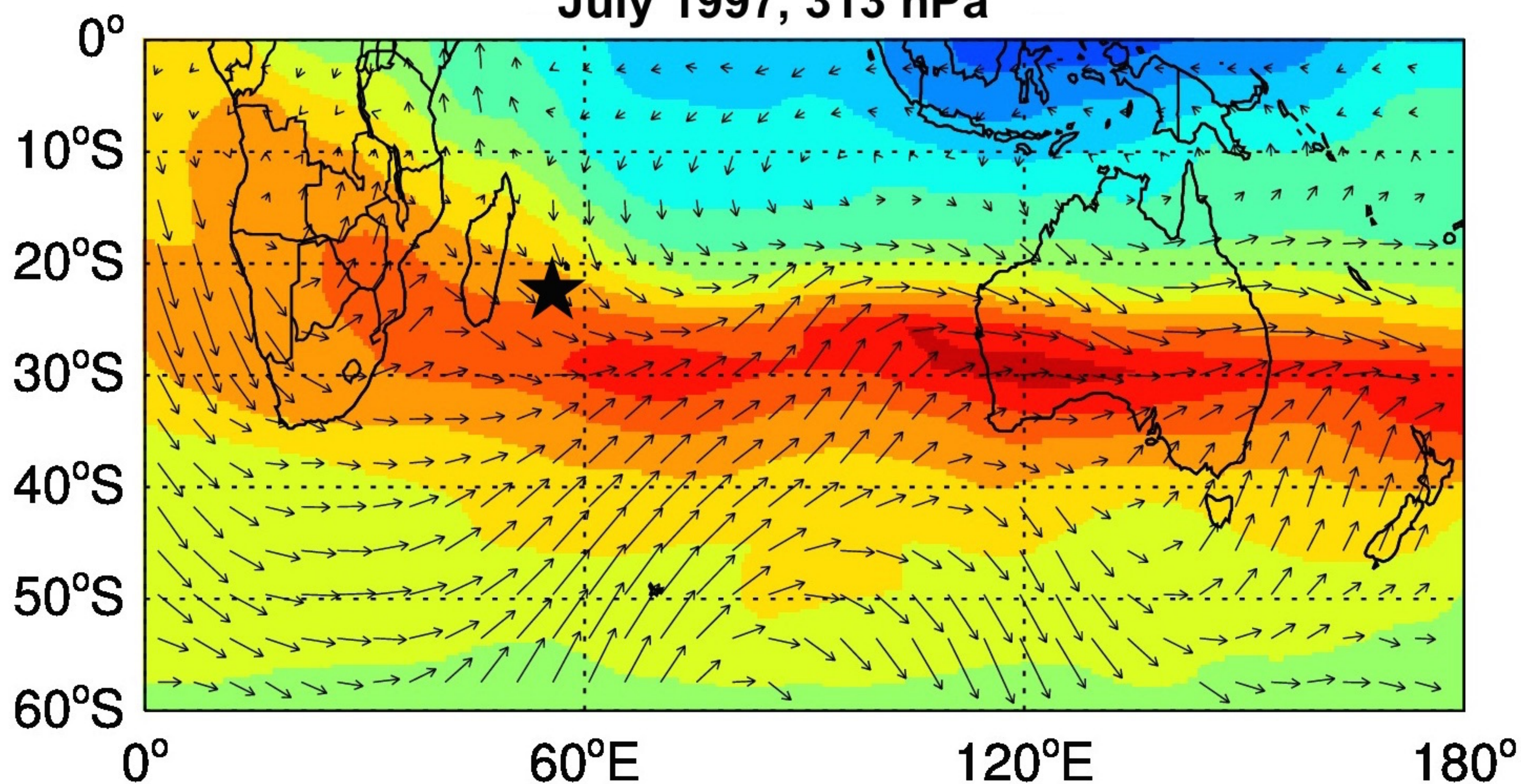
July 1997



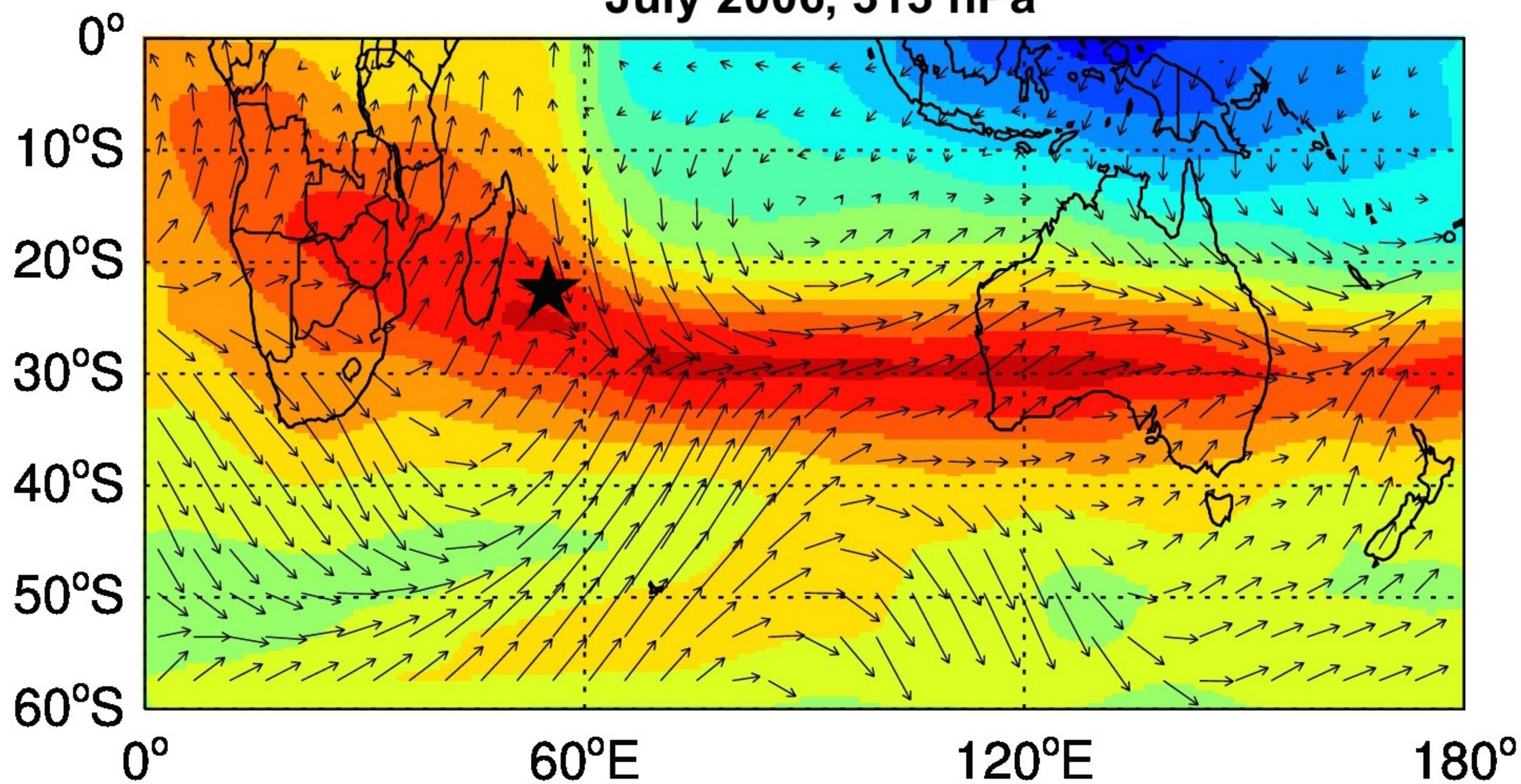
July 2006



July 1997, 313 hPa

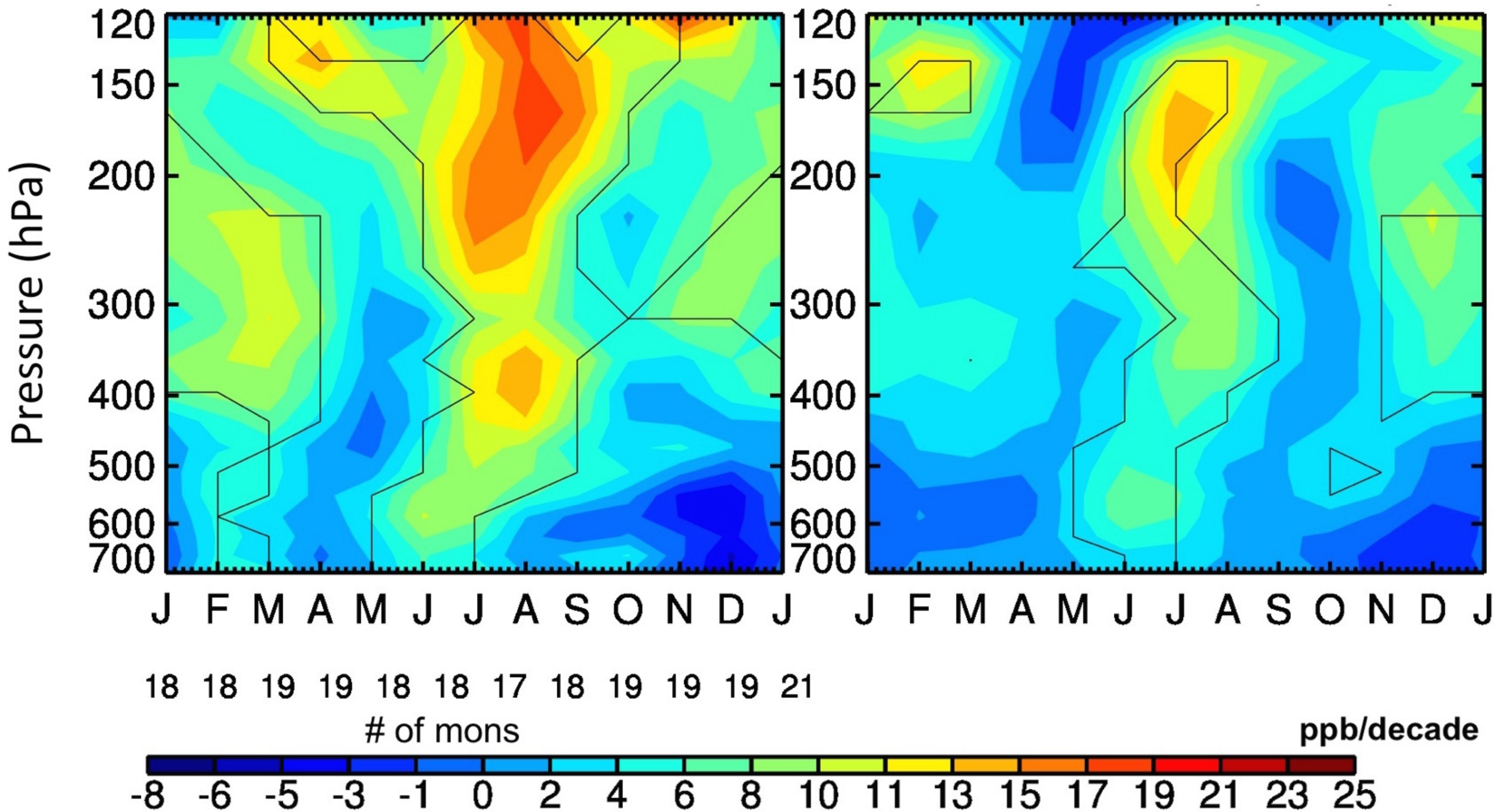


July 2006, 313 hPa



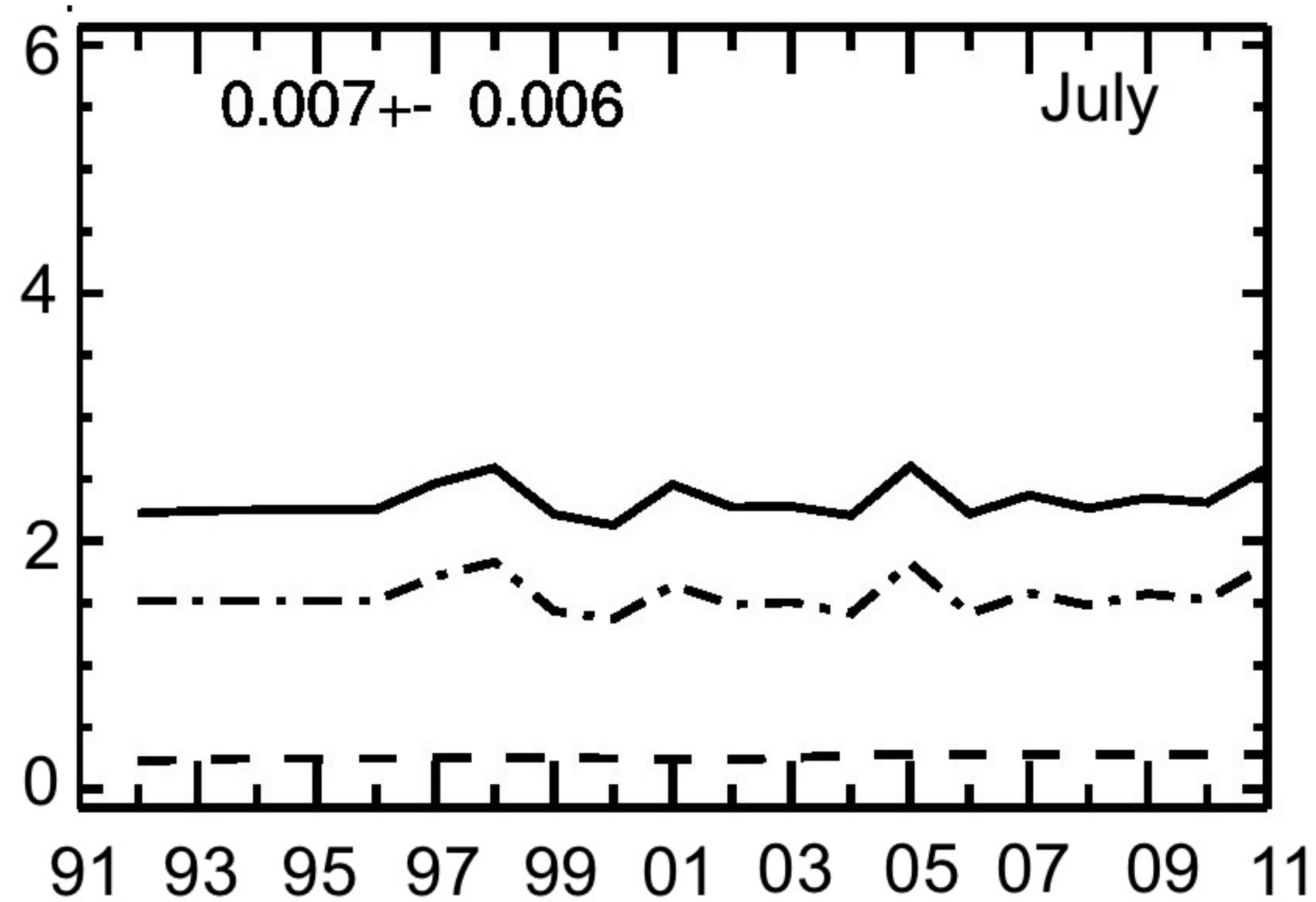
a) Réunion Sondes (1992-2014)

b) Hindcast-VE (2°x2.5°)

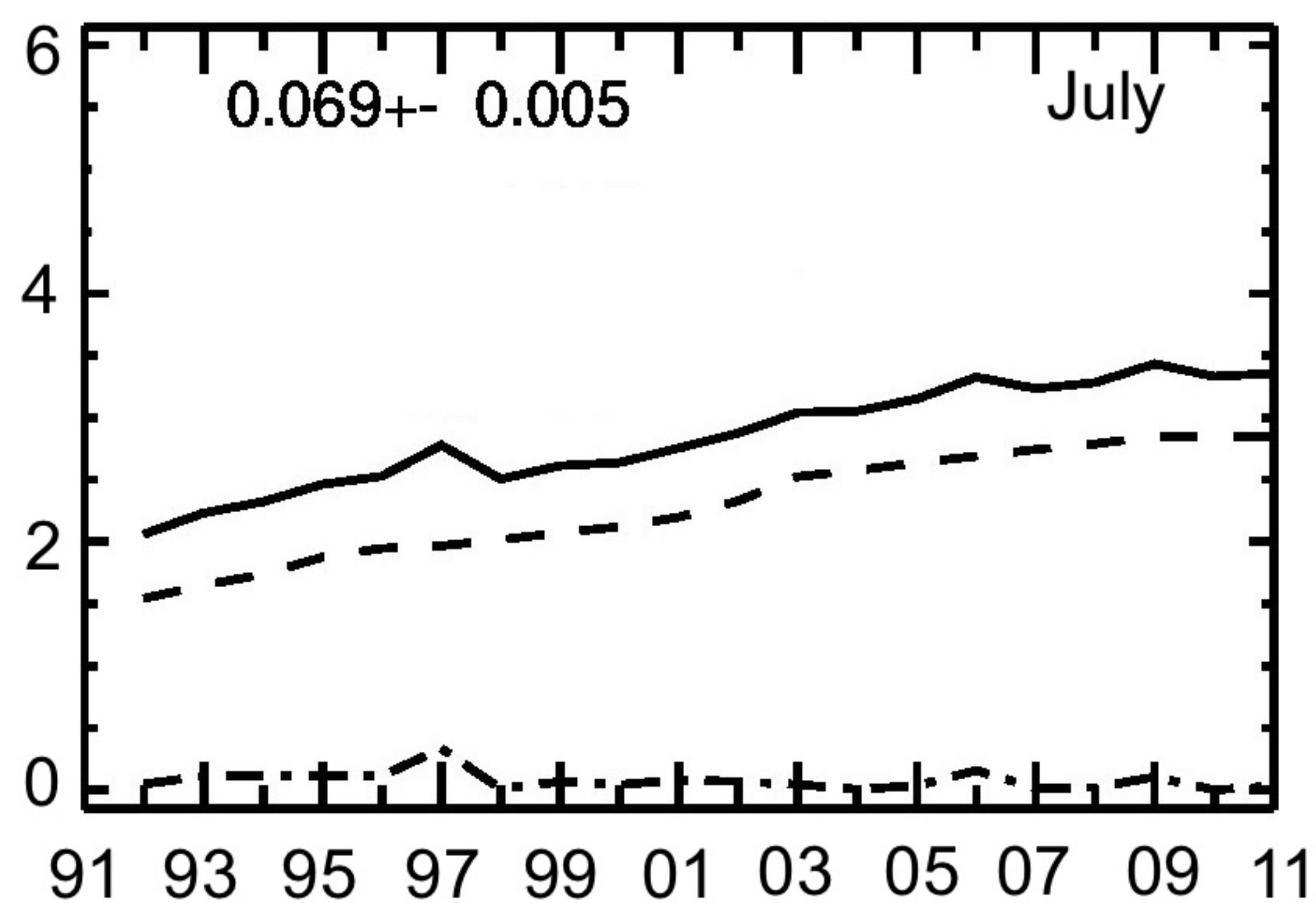


NO emissions (kt/mon)

S. Africa (35S-6N, 8E-51E)

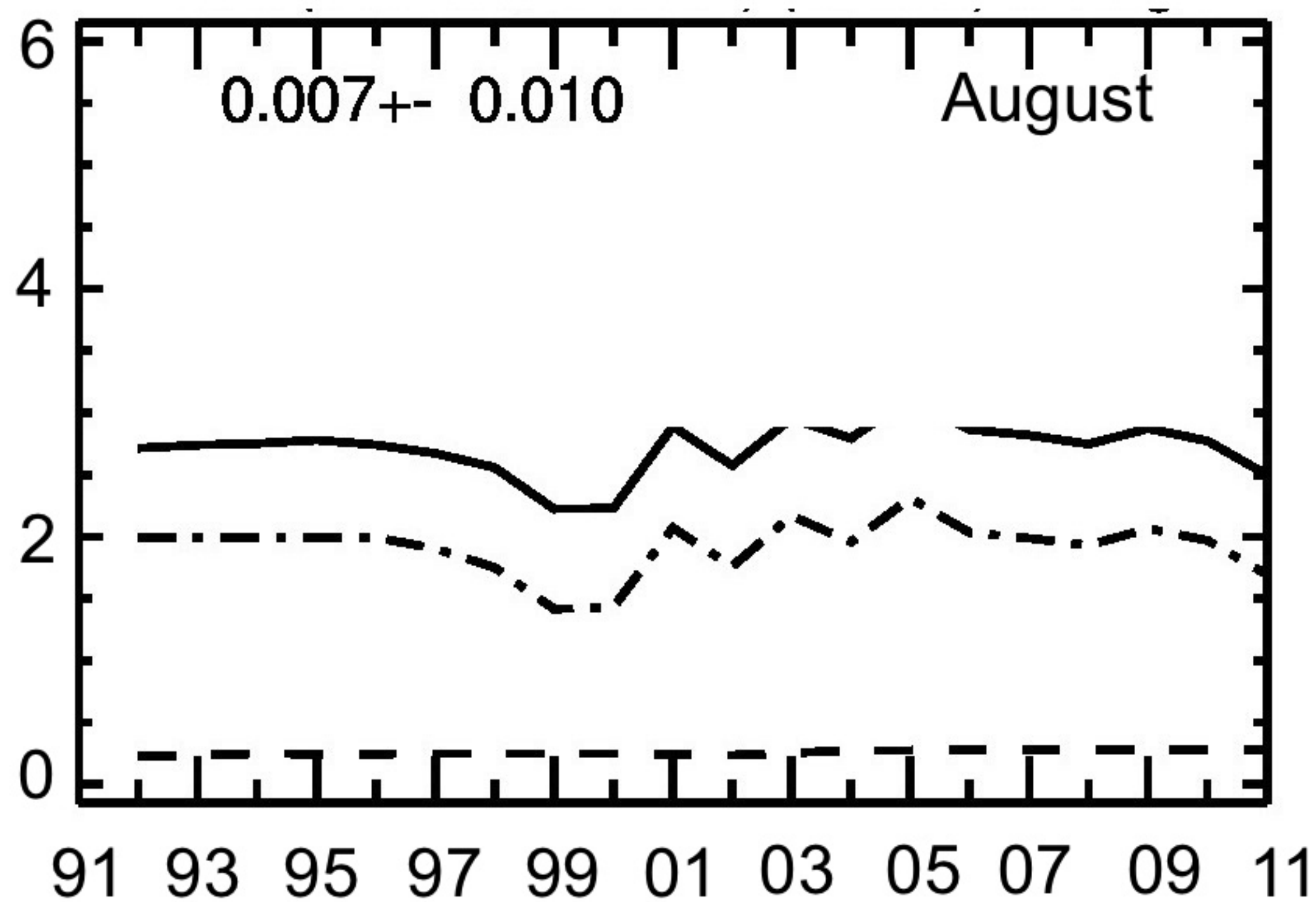


East (10S-40N, 70E-125E)

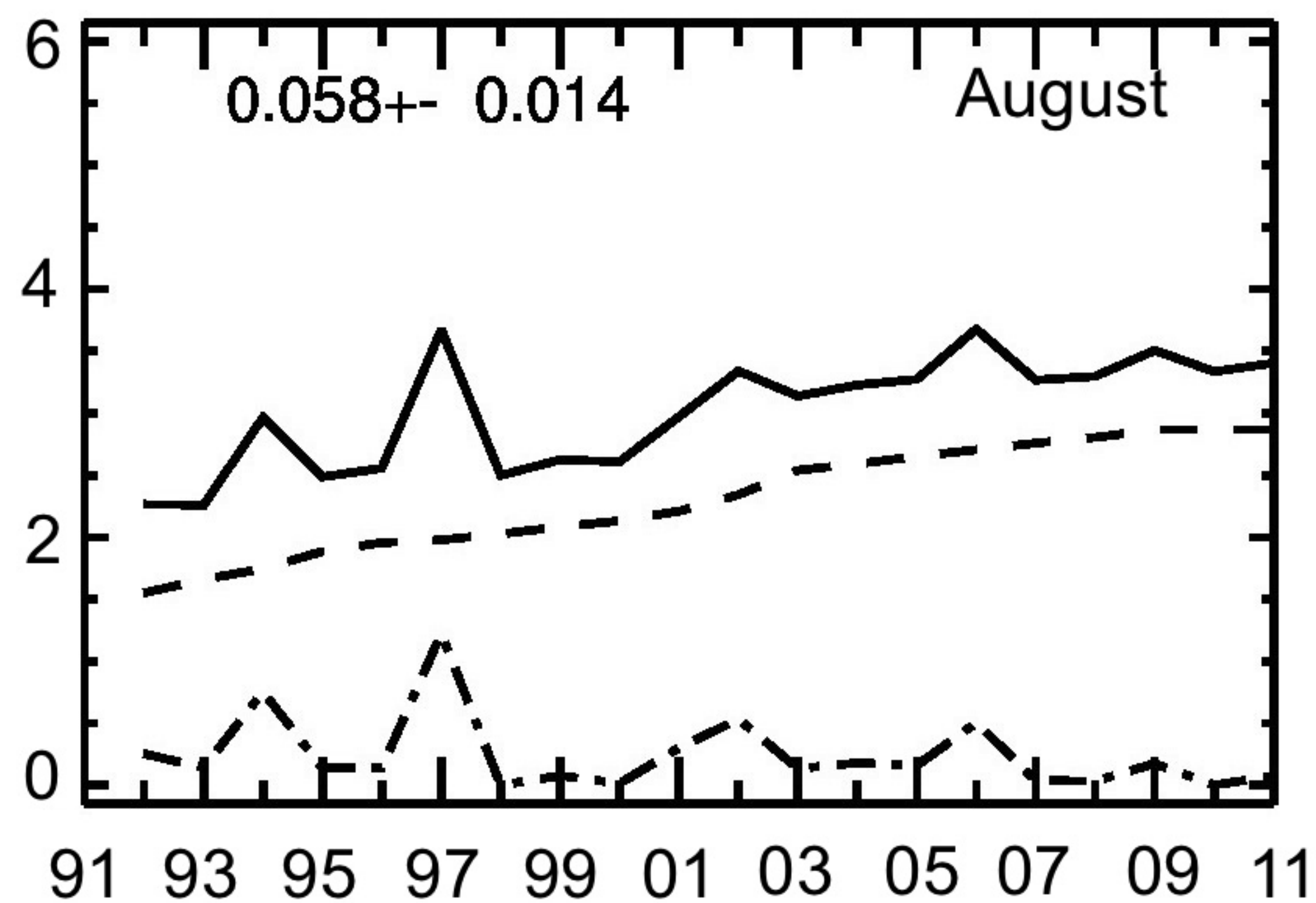


— NO Total
- - - NO FF
- . - NO BB

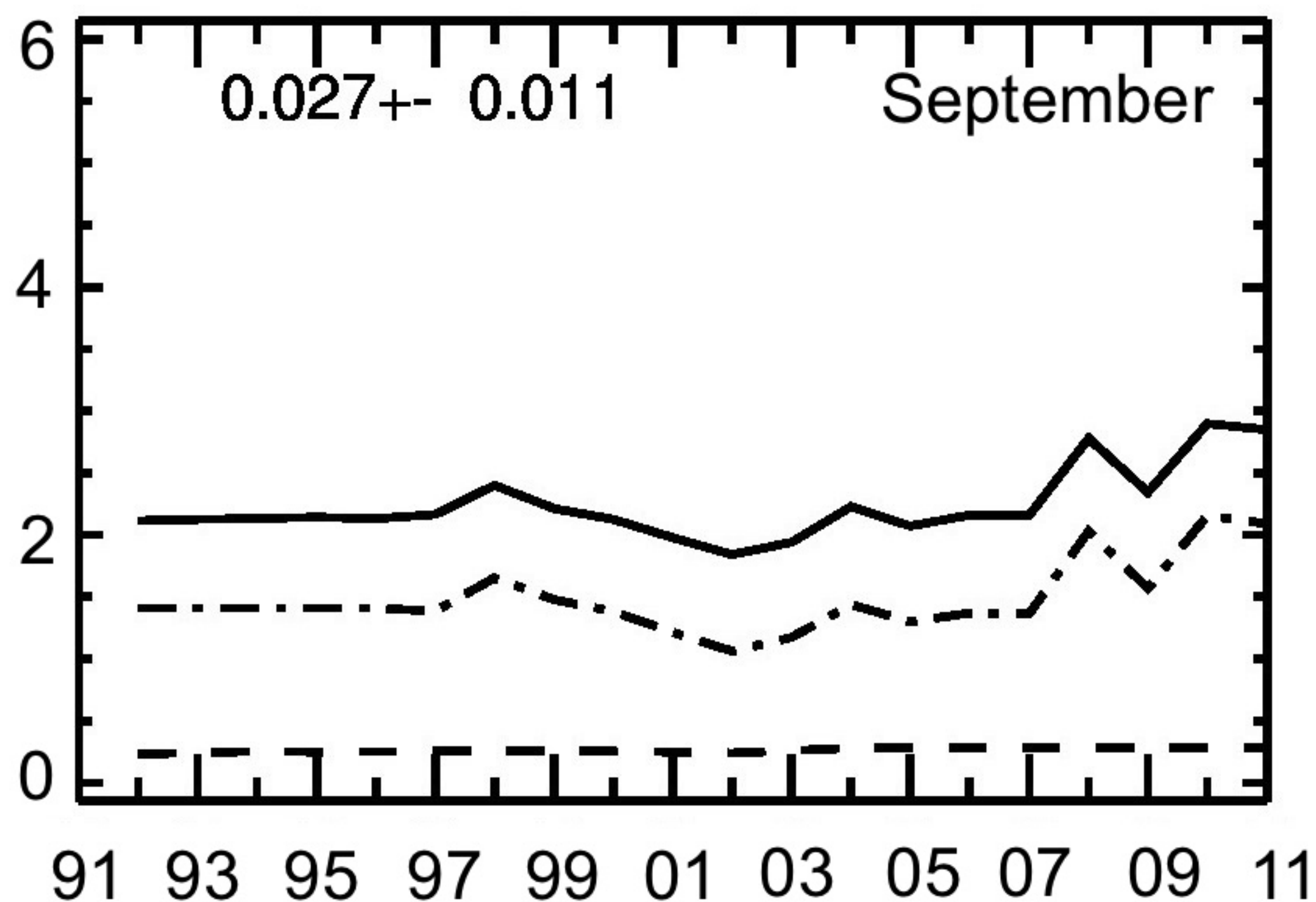
0.007+- 0.010 August



0.058+- 0.014 August



0.027+- 0.011 September



0.054+- 0.028 September

